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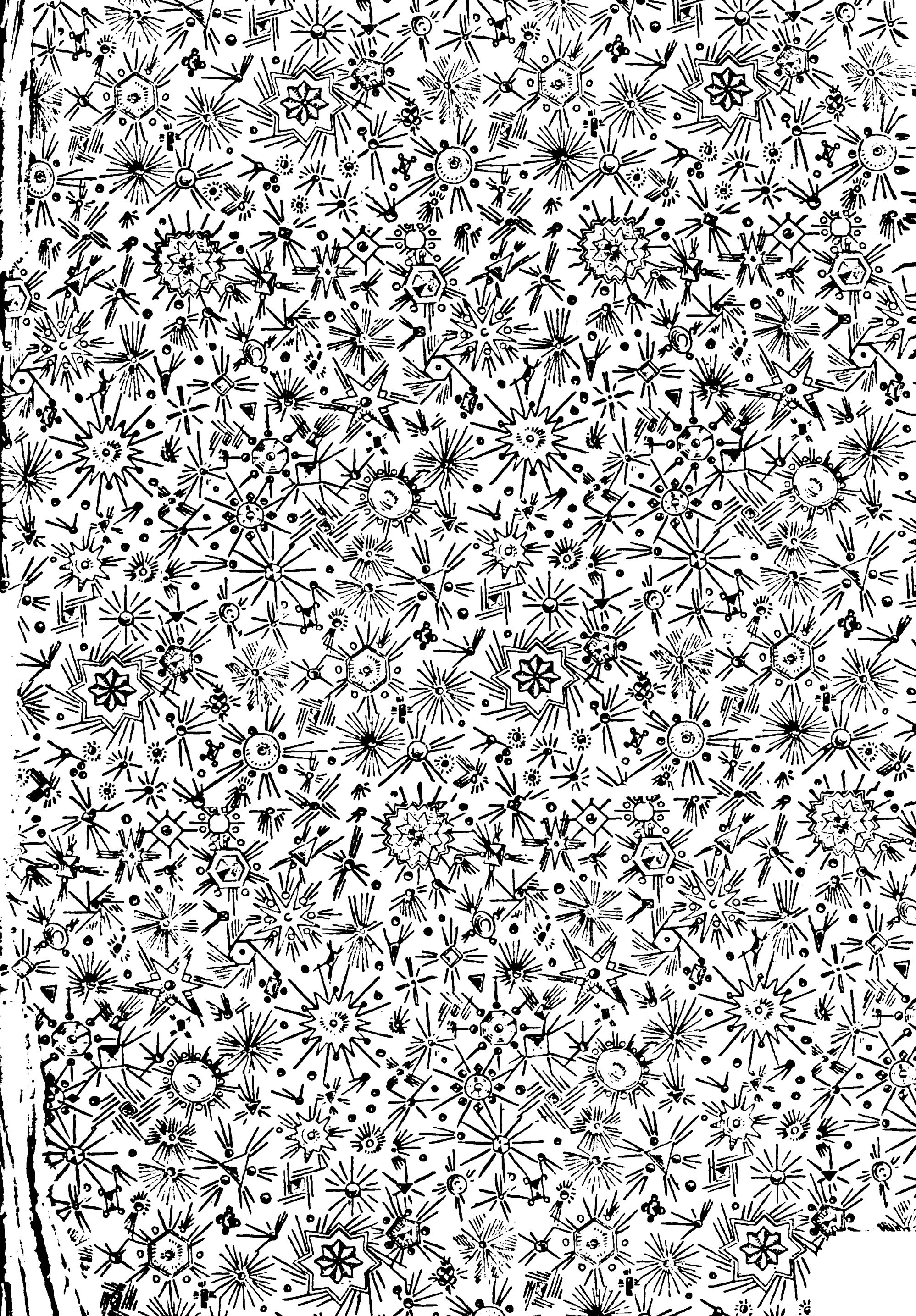
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**Emperor William I.**



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WILLIAM I, FOUNDER OF THE NEW  
GERMAN EMPIRE.

---

BY

HERMANN LIEB.

AUTHOR OF "THE PROTECTIVE TARIFF," ETC.

---

**WITH OVER 50 FULL-PAGE ILLUSTRATIONS.**

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## TABLE OF CONTENTS.

	PAGE
INTRODUCTION, . . . . .	17
CHAPTER I.	
THE ANCIENT GERMANS, . . . . .	81
CHAPTER II.	
CONFLICT OF THE ROMANS AND TEUTONS, . . . . .	47
CHAPTER III.	
FROM FALL OF WESTERN ROMAN EMPIRE TO END OF THE HOHENSTAUFENS, . . . . .	81
CHAPTER IV.	
FROM THE HOHENSTAUFEN TO THE HOHENZOLLERN, . . . . .	186
CHAPTER V.	
THE HOHENZOLLERN DYNASTY, . . . . .	187
CHAPTER VI.	
PRINCE WILLIAM—HIS BIRTH AND YOUTH, . . . . .	219
CHAPTER VII.	
AS CROWN PRINCE OF PRUSSIA, . . . . .	274
CHAPTER VIII.	
THE REVOLUTION IN BADEN, . . . . .	289
CHAPTER IX.	
PRINCE WILLIAM AS KING WILLIAM I. OF PRUSSIA, . . . . .	349
CHAPTER X.	
THE AUSTRO-PRUSSIAN WAR, . . . . .	373
CHAPTER XI.	
THE FRANCO-PRUSSIAN WAR, . . . . .	406
CHAPTER XII.	
EMPEROR WILLIAM'S ECCLESIASTICAL WAR, . . . . .	447
CHAPTER XIII.	
EMPEROR WILLIAM I. AS A MAN, . . . . .	462
CHAPTER XIV.	
DEATH AND BURIAL OF EMPEROR WILLIAM I., . . . . .	474
CHAPTER XV.	
UNSER FRITZ, . . . . .	483
CHAPTER XVI.	
EMPEROR WILLIAM II., . . . . .	512

4-15-35 41A



## LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS.

EMPEROR WILLIAM I., . . . . .	FRONTISPIECE.
<hr style="width: 20%; margin: 0 auto;"/>	
	PAGE.
A HOHENZOLLERN FAMILY IN 1200, . . . . .	83
AT VERSAILLES ON THE 18TH OF JANUARY, 1871, . . . . .	363
BATTLE NEAR DOFFINGEN, . . . . .	90
BISMARCK ESCORTS NAPOLEON III. TO BELLEVUE CASTLE, . . . . .	348
BRINGING OFFERINGS FOR THE WAR OF INDEPENDENCE, . . . . .	275
CHARLEMAGNE INFLECTING BAPTISM UPON THE SAXONS, . . . . .	46
CONFERRING KNIGHTHOOD, . . . . .	52
COUNCIL OF WAR IN NOVEMBER, 1870, . . . . .	357
CROWN PRINCE WILLIAM (NOW EMPEROR WILLIAM II.) AND WIFE, . . . . .	363
CROWN PRINCE FREDERICK WILLIAM AND WIFE (LATE EM- PEROR FREDERICK III. AND THE EMPRESS VICTORIA,) . . . . .	432
DECORATION OF FREDERICK III. WITH THE ORDER "POUR LE MÉRITE" UPON THE BATTLE-FIELD OF KONIGGRATZ, . . . . .	335
ELIZABETH CHRISTINE, WIFE OF FREDERICK THE GREAT, . . . . .	140
EMPEROR WILLIAM I., . . . . .	304
EMPEROR WILLIAM I., . . . . .	386
EMPRESS AUGUSTA, . . . . .	313
FOUR GENERATIONS—EMPEROR WILLIAM I., SON, GRANDSON AND GREAT-GRANDSON, . . . . .	370
FREDERICK WILLIAM, THE GREAT ELECTOR, . . . . .	96
FREDERICK THE GREAT IN HIS LIBRARY, . . . . .	211

	PAGE.
FREDERICK THE GREAT AFTER THE BATTLE OF TORGAN, .	162
FREDERICK THE GREAT ENTERING POTSDAM IN 1779, .	171
FREDERICK THE GREAT AFTER THE BATTLE OF KOLIN, .	155
FREDERICK THE GREAT PLAYING THE FLUTE, . . .	202
FREDERICK WILLIAM I. INSPECTING HIS GRENADIERS, .	127
FREDERICK THE GREAT AND VOLTAIRE, . . . .	178
FREDERICK WILLIAM IV. IN HIS STUDY, . . . .	297
FREDERICK III., LATE EMPEROR OF GERMANY, . . .	495
FREDERICK III. IN HIS STUDY, . . . . .	507
FUNERAL PROCESSION OF EMPEROR WILLIAM I., . .	412
GENERAL FIELD-MARSHAL COUNT HELMUTH VON MOLTKE .	326
KING FREDERICK WILLIAM I., . . . . .	105
KING FREDERICK I., . . . . .	118
KING FREDERICK II. (THE GREAT), . . . . .	134
KING FREDERICK WILLIAM III., . . . . .	218
KING FREDERICK WILLIAM IV., . . . . .	201
KING WILLIAM AT THE TOMB OF HIS PARENTS ON JULY 19, 1870, PREVIOUS TO HIS DEPARTURE TO THE ARMY, . . .	342
MARSHAL BLUCHER, . . . . .	258
MOUNTED GOTH, . . . . .	21
PETER THE HERMIT, . . . . .	61
PRINCE OTTO VON BISMARCK, CHANCELLOR OF THE REALM,	320
QUEEN SOPHIA CHARLOTTE, WIFE OF FREDERICK I., . .	111
QUEEN LOUISE WITH HER TWO SONS IN 1797, . . .	242
QUEEN LOUISE, . . . . .	235
QUEEN LOUISA, . . . . .	251
RECONCILIATION OF FREDERICK THE GREAT AND HIS FATHER,	149



# LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS.

11

	PAGE.
SOCIAL GATHERING AT SANS-SOUCI, . . . . .	195
THE EXECUTION OF THE WIFE OF THE TRAITOR GOTH, . . . . .	27
THE GOTHs IN ROME, . . . . .	87
THE FOUR LEADERS OF THE FIRST CRUSADE, . . . . .	67
THE HUNS IN GERMANY, . . . . .	43
TEUTON WOMEN DEFENDING THE CARS AGAINST MARIUS, . . . . .	15
THE SICK EMPEROR WILLIAM I. AND BISMARCK, . . . . .	392
THE MOURNING GERMAN FAMILY, . . . . .	407
THE DEAD EMPEROR WILLIAM I., . . . . .	401
THE DOWAGER EMPRESS VICTORIA, . . . . .	499
TRANSFERRING THE EMPEROR'S REMAINS TO CHARLOTTENBERG, . . . . .	421
THE OLD HOHENZOLERN CASTLE, . . . . .	74
THE BERLIN CONGRESS, . . . . .	879
THE LATE EMPEROR WILLIAM I. AT THE AGE OF NINE, . . . . .	282
WILLIAM II., EMPEROR OF GERMANY, . . . . .	510





**In consideration of the vast numbers of our German fellow-citizens who are most conversant with the German language, and who desire to have the romantic story of the German Fatherland in their native mother-tongue, the publishers have also issued this work in the German language.**





**Deutsche Frauen vertheidigen die Wagenburg.**  
**TEUTON WOMEN DEFENDING THE CARS AGAINST MARITS.**



## INTRODUCTION.

History records the fact that, for the last fifteen hundred years, Germany's limited territory has been the great battlefield upon which the periodical struggles between determined peoples for the possession of territory, the supremacy of moral ideas, and the unyielding wars between dynasties, have taken place.

As a consequence, the inhabitants of her most flourishing districts and cities were the endless victims of fire and sword. Almost before a city had been rebuilt, or a stubborn farmer changed his devastated acres into ripening fields of grain, another army, with burning torch and tramping legions, knocked at its gate, marched into its fields, sacked its cities and destroyed its people. To realize this state of insecurity it is but necessary to remind the reader of the invasion of the Huns under Attila, the "Mass Conversions" of the Saxons by Charlemagne, the interminable struggles for the possession of the Imperial crown of Germany, for the extension and accessions of territory by contesting rulers, the religious and political commotions of the great Reformation, the Thirty Years' War, which came very near depopulating Germany, the overrunning of the Palatinate — the Rhinish provinces — by the soldiers of Louis XIV., under command of the notorious Melac, the Seven Years' War of Frederick the Great against all the powers of Europe, and last, but not least, the devastating wars of Napoleon I. against Prussia and Russia.

In view of this never-ending strife, consider for a moment of what stuff these people were made to with-

stand the constantly recurring destruction of their homes, their cities and accumulations, and still are to be found to-day in the front ranks of art, science, literature—in fine, in every walk that denotes the highest state of modern civilization!

The immediate cause, however, which gave the first impulse to German emigration across the Atlantic was the inhumanities practiced by French General Melac towards the Protestant inhabitants of the Rhinish provinces.

Scarcely had the two destructive armies of the Thirty Years' War turned their backs upon the starving inhabitants of the farms and villages of Southern Germany ere the French army of Melac was turned loose upon the Northern portion, transforming one of the most fertile regions into a barren desert.

The terrible winter of 1708 and 1709 seems to have filled their cup of misery to overflowing.

In their famishing straits, applying in vain to the authorities for assistance, their sorrowful eyes were at last turned towards the New World.

Through the exertions of a Protestant clergyman, Joshua von Hochertal, of the city of Landau, his congregation succeeded in securing transportation to London, from whence, through the mediation of Queen Anne, they were sent upon English ships to the colonies in the year 1709.

The speculative Englishman, who had long before seized upon the best lands of "this goodly country," soon discovering the stern qualities of the new-comers, understood their adaptability to agricultural pursuits and trade, and soon induced the well-satisfied immigrants to write back to friends and relatives at home "to come over."

So effectual were these cheering missives that in June of the following year 14,000 Rhinish and Swabian Germans were waiting in London for passage to the land of golden opportunities.

Reaching the colonies in safety, they were invited by the Quakers of Philadelphia to come into Pennsylvania, which invitation was accepted, and there was laid the foundation of a highly-appreciated class of American husbandmen and artisans, miscalled the Pennsylvania *Dutch*.

In the trail of this industrious class, which, during the first quarter of the last century flocked to the New World, there came a class of very undesirable emigrants, a multitude of dangerous and worthless characters, who, in the wake of now disbanded armies, had plundered the defenseless inhabitants, and robbed the dead and wounded upon the many battlefields—in short, the outcasts created by long and destructive wars in Germany. Under various subterfuges they had secured transportation and were now congregated in the few cities of the coast, refusing to work and preying upon their more prosperous countrymen.

In consequence of this disturbing element, the security of property was threatened and discredit was cast upon all emigrants from Germany.

Accordingly, the colonial authorities of Pennsylvania in 1727 believed themselves called upon to pass restrictive regulations against emigrants from Germany in general, which, as will be seen, were extremely severe and humiliating to that nationality.

The act provided the payment of a tax of forty shillings per head be demanded of every German landing upon its

shores—the same tax that was required for the landing of an imported negro slave, while only half that sum, twenty shillings, was demanded of an Irishman—an obnoxious discrimination, which time seems not to have obliterated. As in the case of all unjust laws, the doors of outrageous abuses were opened.

The honest but destitute emigrant, who had secured his passage under the promise of refunding the money upon securing employment, unable to pay this tax, was sold the same as a slave to the highest bidder, by which outrage the members of families were often ruthlessly separated.

It was but natural that emigrants arriving under such circumstances should have engendered in the minds of the native colonists feelings of commiseration mingled with contempt.

However, these hardships were of but temporary duration. Diligently and faithfully performing every duty, bearing their humiliation with meekness, they gradually succeeded in emancipating themselves from this state of servitude.

Thousands of valuable estates in Pennsylvania, still in possession of the descendants of these emigrants, attest to the truth of the golden opinions finally won by them, and after recorded in the historical annals of the Keystone State.

But the prejudice and disdain which these early Germans had unmeritedly received from the English had hardly disappeared when a more serious cause for bringing the Germans into disrepute was found.

In the early stages of the War for Independence, when the colonists had taxed themselves to the utmost limit in



Ein gothischer Reiter.  
MOUNTED GOTH.



blood and treasure, it was discovered that thousands of Germans had been hired by the English government to assist in subduing them.

This fact was sufficient to re-awaken the old prejudice, and to create a sentiment of antipathy toward any person coming from Germany or bearing a German name—which in this instance, without a knowledge of the real condition of things, was quite excusable.

They could not know, and if they had known they would not have believed it possible, that sovereigns would have bartered whole ship-loads of their subjects as cattle and horses are bought and sold.

The principal actors in this monstrous traffic were the Ministers of England on the one side and the Prince of the Electorate of Hesse and the Margrave of Ansbach.

According to the historian Schlosser, not less than 20,000 of these so-called "Hessian hirelings" were added to the English army in their warfare against the American colonies.

It is a well authenticated fact that but few of these men enrolled voluntarily, and those who did were deceived as to the real point of destination. Most of them were pressed into the service.

Regular *razzias* were organized in Southern Germany. Young men were seized by recruiting emissaries, dragged to the nearest garrison, from whence they were transported in gangs, under strong military escort, to England.

The German poet, Seume, who afterward became a noted writer, was one of these victims, and the details of his experience, which is that of thousands of others, are as follows:

Returning home on a vacation from the University of Leipsic, he was seized by Hessian recruiting agents and thrown into the Fortress of Ziegenheim. He says in his biography: "Upon learning the object of our imprisonment, a number of us resolved to revolt, but the plot was revealed to the officers of the garrison. We were ordered into line in front of the Arsenal, covered by a regiment of infantry and several pieces of artillery. The leaders were called to the front, two of them sentenced to be hung and others ordered to run the gauntlet."

"It would not do," says Seume, "to hang too many of us, because we were expensive articles of merchandise, and England pays nothing for dead soldiers. After our arrival in Long Island, we again attempted to rebel against our captors, as we preferred to fight on the side of the Americans; but the preliminaries for peace between the United States and England had begun before our plan could be executed."

This short and truthful story of the experiences of a "Hessian hireling" was that of thousands of others, and is a dreadful exposition of the infamous trade in human flesh carried on by philanthropic England and the dissipated and heartless princelings of two small German states.

The writings, in prose and verse, of the most noted and popular poets and historians of Germany, the great Frederick Schiller among them, who at the time denounced the infamous traffic, only reflected the prevailing sentiment of the people at large.

In this connection it is pleasant to remember that Frederick the Great, the first great king of the Hohenzollern family, made public his sentiments in the matter

by refusing passage through the Prussian territory of these troops. Said he to the Hessian ambassador: "Tell your master if I allow these Hessians passage through my lands, I will lay a cattle-tax upon them, as they are to be sold to England like cattle."

That this was the feeling also of the German settlers in the colonies is supported by the fact that, in spite of the allurements and liberal inducements offered by England, they remained loyal to the cause of Independence, and joined the colonial ranks in large numbers under the command of Nicolaus and Hengist Herkeimer and Jacob Klock.

It is a somewhat significant fact, that no historian writing in the English language has mentioned this circumstance. This duty of making known to the reading Germans the part their countrymen took in the colonial rebellion has been faithfully performed by Frederick Kapp who, in his "History of the Germans of New York," says: "The German farmers were not, as has been stated by Burnet, in favor of England, but against her. They constituted, as it were, the strong wall which resisted the enemy's incursions and baffled all their attempts to separate the Eastern and Northern colonies from the Southern. While with the rest they participated in the common struggle, shedding their blood for the cause of Independence, they are entitled to a share of the glory of the great achievement. But for the efficiency and stubbornness of the German troops from the Mohawk and Schoharie it is questionable whether the cause of the colonists, which has resulted in so great a blessing to mankind, would have eventually triumphed. And what was the conduct of the German-Americans toward the country of their

adoption at the outbreak and during the late civil war? Is it not a fact that, without a single exception, they expressed themselves most loyal to the cause of the Union, demonstrating their professions by joining the first armed levies *en masse*? Of the first 75,000 men called out by President Lincoln, it is safe to say that not less than one-fourth of the number were of German nationality. The State of New York furnished several regiments, composed almost exclusively of German-Americans, as did Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana and Illinois; of the first five regiments furnished by Missouri, two-thirds of the men were Germans.

How well they did their duty on every battlefield is evinced by the many thousand German names recorded on the nation's roll of honor.

In peace, in their homes, in their business relations, in their occupations as farmers, artisans, merchants, professionals, artists and musicians, do they not compare favorably with every other foreigner coming to these shores? Do the poor-houses, jails and penal institutions of the country contain a larger proportion of German-Americans than those of other nationalities? The people of the countries which stand at the front of civilization to-day are all descendants of the old Teuton tribes of Germany, and it is a sad commentary upon the much-vaunted state of social and political progress in this country, that blind prejudice has been, and is still, the greatest barrier against a friendly commingling of these different nationalities, which is an absolute requisite to the formation of national homogeneousness—the prosperity and strength of the Republic. There is no doubt, that under the most favorable circumstances, to amalgamate the most restless, dar-



**Die Hinrichtung der Frau eines gothischen Verräthers.**  
**THE EXECUTION OF THE WIFE OF THE TRAITOR GOTH.**

ing and unyielding of the various nationalities which have been and now are spreading over the North American continent, into one great American nationality, having its own type, its physical and intellectual characteristics, it will require years yet of animadversion and strife.

But when existing differences have been adjusted through a right understanding of the claims of each, when objectionable tendencies have been checked, the asperities as well as salient characteristics of each, tempered by a growing sentiment of tolerance, and only that which is pure and ennobling and in full harmony with the genius of American institutions retained, then will there be, distinctively no more Anglo-Saxon, Celt, Slav, Scandinavian, French or German, but a people whose characteristics have been inherited from the healthiest and strongest tribes in mind and body—"The survival of the fittest." The author has offered these glimpses of German-American history merely to show the reader that although the Germans are citizens of the United States, and loyal to its government, they hold in reverence the memory of the man who was the embodiment of German unity and power—not to be interpreted, however, as the adoration of pomp and splendor, but as the spontaneous acknowledgment of a grateful people toward a monarch to whom they are indebted for the realization of a dream of nearly twenty centuries' duration.





## CHAPTER I.

### THE ANCIENT GERMANS.

**I**N THIS age of historical, ethnological and philological research, to write a complete history of the Teutonic people would require the lifetime of a man untrained in these particular branches of study. That duty must be left to men of more leisure, and with a greater capacity and love for delving into tomes of musty lore than the author claims to possess.

Therefore, in this short sketch of the Germans, preceding the life of Emperor William I., the object is merely to give the reader a general idea of the origin, geographical situation in Europe, the early conditions, the customs and laws of this ancient people, in order that he may have a fair knowledge of the nation of fifty million souls, which to-day mourns the loss of its imperial chief.

It is generally supposed that the Germanic races, collectively called Teutons, were a branch of the Aryan family of nations, who, at a period of which there is no record, migrated from Asia across the Ural and Caucasus mountains to the northwestern part of Russia.

It is known from a similarity in many of the earliest linguistic groups, that the Germanic tribes and Slavs were in constant intercourse. But the first authentic geographical situation of these more than fifty tribes, outlined by historians, was within the boundaries of the Rhine, the Danube and the Vistula—the three largest rivers of Europe.

The earliest account of their advent upon the political

stage of Europe, is in the year 102 B. C., when, as Kingsley says, "the Kempers and Teutons broke over the Alps with a force of 300,000 men and 15,000 mailed knights, armed with broad-swords and lances, and roaming over the sunny plains of Italy, stumbled upon Marius with his Roman legions, who utterly destroyed them."

A people able to muster such an immense force of armed men, pre-supposes organization, military drill, discipline, plan, and a certain degree of administrative ability, as well as a certain amount of skill and handicraft in the manufacture of arms and equipments, indispensable to the efficiency of any army in the field.

No parallel, therefore, can be drawn between a people thus advanced and the roving tribes of predatory North American savages, as has been attempted by the historian Gibbon.

True, they were a primitive people, in a state of semi-barbaric simplicity, living in the primeval forests of Central Europe, but nursing within their breasts the germ of a civilization which has spread over the Western half of the globe.

While, to the contrary, "had Gibbon been right," says Kingsley, "and our forefathers in the German wilds had been like Powhatan's people, as the English found them in Virginia, the Romans would not have been long in civilizing them off the face of the earth."

Occupying a country abounding in game, the little land they cultivated richly repaying their toil, it is probable, that for centuries they lived in an isolated but free and happy state, little known to the neighbors to the west and south of them. As the German historian Menzel describes them:—"When the merchants of Tyre and Car-

thage were weighing their heavy anchors and spreading their purple sails for far seas, the Greek was making the earth fair by his art, and the Roman was founding his colossal empire of force, the Teuton was yet a child; but a child of a royal race, destined to win glory for all time to come."

The desire for homogeneousness appears to have prevailed among the different tribes of the Germanic race, long before mention is made in history of their existence. Julius Cæsar possessed a knowledge of three distinct Germanic confederations about the time of Christ. The Suevy confederation comprised the territory between the Elbe, the Vistula and the Baltic Sea, which was subsequently extended to Southern Germany, where, under the name of Swabians, their descendants are still to be found; the tribes of the confederation of the Cherusci, of which Arminius, the hero of the battle of "Teutoburger Wald," was chief, dwelt upon lands in the vicinity of the Harz mountains; and the Macromanni, under the leadership of Mardobuus, occupied the territory along the Danube, and later on, the country now known as Bohemia. It is also known that the Saxons and Angles, whose settlements stretched along the west bank of the lower Elbe, had also formed an alliance for mutual protection.

Thus early were the aspirations of these Teutonic tribes for unity in government put in practice.

Their manner of settlement seems to have struck Tacitus, a Roman historian, born about 50 B. C., as peculiar.

"That none of the several peoples in Germany," says he, "live together in cities, is abundantly known; nay, that amongst them none of their dwellings are suffered to be contiguous. They settle apart and distinct, just as a

fountain, or a field, or a wood, happens to invite them. They build their villages not in the manner of the Romans, with houses joining each other. Every man has a vacant space around his own, either for security against fire, or because they know not the art of building. In all their structures they employ materials quite gross and unhewn—log-houses. Some parts they besmear with an earth, so pure and resplendent that it resembles painting in colors.”

Of their personal appearance, we are told, “they resembled none but themselves. With eyes stern and blue, yellow hair and huge bodies—the same make and form is found in all.”

“For their covering they all wear a mantle—a sort of loose shirt—fastened with a clasp, or, for the want of it, a thorn. As far as this reached not they were naked. The dress of the women differed not from that of the men, save that they were ordinarily attired in linen, embroidered with purple, using no sleeves, so that all their arms were bare.” This was no doubt their summer costume, as we read that the tribes bordering the Rhine, used, without any delicacy, the skins of wild beasts.

In their family relations only the pure were allowed to marry. The wife brought no dower to the husband; on the contrary, the husband made the presents; “they were not presents,” says Tacitus, “adapted to feminine display and delicacy, but oxen, and a horse accoutred, a shield, a javelin and sword; by virtue of these gifts she was espoused; that she might not suppose herself free from the considerations of fortitude and fighting, or exempt from the casualties of war, the very first solemnities of her wedding served to warn her, that she came to her

husband in his hazards and fatigues; that she was to suffer alike with him; to adventure alike during peace or war."

The oxen joined under one yoke, symbolized the equal share of duties between them; the horse equipped, represented readiness for every call to defend country and home.

These arms were to be preserved inviolate by the wife, to be bestowed upon her sons at their marriage, the brides of whom must resign them to their sons in turn, and so, the *halle aux armes* became the sacred altar of every household at its foundation.

The ordinary husband was contented with one wife, a condition exceptional among the semi-civilized nations of that period. It was, however, permitted to a few of the most dignified and notable, in order to add to the luster of their families, to make other alliances.

Among a people so numerous, adultery was exceedingly rare; but when committed, was a crime to be instantly punished. The punishment was to be inflicted by the injured husband. After cutting off the criminal's golden hair and stripping her naked, in the presence of her kindred and family, she was expelled from her home and pursued with stripes through the village; no pardon was granted her, however beautiful, however exalted; a husband she never more could have!

Increase of family was encouraged, and the destruction of infant life considered an abominable sin.

Children were reared naked, and thus grew into those limbs, "the size of which," says the historian, "were a marvel to behold." They were nourished with the milk of their own mothers. By any superior rearing the lord

could not be distinguished from the slave; but, at a proper age, the free born were separated from the rest, and henceforth brought up to deeds of valor and conquest. It was not, however, allowed to a young man to bear arms before the community had attested his capacity to use them. Upon such testimonial, either one in authority, or his father, or some kinsman, in the midst of the assembly, conferred upon him a shield and a javelin.

This was his *manly robe*; this was the first degree of honor with which he was invested. Before this ceremony the youth was only a part of a private family—after, he was a part of the community.

The dignity of prince was often conferred upon mere striplings, whose family were noble, or whose fathers had done great and signal service to the state. These were at all times surrounded by a numerous band of young men—for ornament and glory in peace, for security and defense in war.

These princes become famous through the number of their followers and warlike deeds, and by their renown alone, were often able to prevent wars. In battle, no prince must be surpassed in feats of bravery by his followers; and it was disgraceful for his followers to fall behind the bravery of their prince. To return alive from a battle in which their prince had been slain was an infamy during life. The most sacred part of their oath, obliged them to preserve their prince, to defend him, *and to ascribe to his glory all their own valorous deeds.*

When their own community, by long peace and inactivity, gave them nothing to do, they, betook themselves to other states in war, because, except in perilous adventure or wars, the prince could not support his numerous

**Die Gothen in Rom**  
**THE GOTHS IN ROME.**





train of retainers. The prince furnished his followers with war-horses and javelins.

After the fatigues of battle they passed their time in indolence, sleeping and eating. The most brave and warlike applied themselves to nothing but war. They could not be persuaded to cultivate the ground, since they deemed it stupid and spiritless to acquire by sweat what could be gained by blood. "It was amazing," continues Tacitus, "to find in men so much delight in sloth with so much enmity to repose."

In recruiting their armies they took out of every village one hundred of their most robust young men, and placed them as infantry in front of the army.

Military discipline was not so much maintained by authority or threats of punishment, as by the valorous example of their chiefs. In the leader, who had distinguished himself in the front rank of battle, they placed implicit confidence and strictly obeyed his orders. The expression of a wish by the revered chief was law to the common soldier. It was not his rank which gave him power over his semi-barbaric hordes, but his example.

The most glaring disgrace that could befall a man was to have quitted the field while a battle raged; for one branded with such infamy it was unlawful for him to join in their religious sacrifices, or to enter into the assembly, and many such, who had escaped from battle, hanged themselves, says the historian, to avoid the ignominy heaped upon them by their tribe.

In conformity with her marriage vows, and by the significance of her dower, the wife was expected to share all the hardships, dangers and vicissitudes of her husband—a sentiment which seems to be one of the striking charac-

teristics of the German of to-day. It was the custom for the families of soldiers to accompany them to battle in order to witness the bravery of their husbands, brothers, and sons, to draw the blood from their wounds with their lips, and to carry to them drink and meat while under fire. In extreme danger the doleful howlings of the wives and children spurred the men on to renewed courage and daring, and it is related that at the first great battle of the Teutons and Marius, after further resistance became mere hopeless desperation, the women, rather than fall into the hands of the Roman victors, hung themselves upon the horns of oxen to be trampled to death under their feet.

It is generally accepted as a maxim that the laws of a country, whether written or unwritten, reflect the social condition of its people. With primitive peoples good laws can originate only with such as are naturally endowed with a high sense of the justice and duty demanded between man and man; and it was the "good manners" spoken of by Tacitus—that is, the morals, honest customs and patriotic aspirations, coupled with an innate principle of justice—which existed among the Teutonic tribes of Europe that laid the foundation upon which has been erected the two greatest monuments of liberty known to mankind—the English Magna Charta and the Constitution of the United States.

In the administration of justice in small matters the chiefs determined the punishment or restitution of property; but in matters of importance the whole nation deliberated. Yet, whatever was decided by the people was discussed and pondered over by the chiefs in conclave. These assemblies took place every month, at the full of the moon if possible, and were held at night. "They did

not come together at once, as men afraid to disobey," continues the historian, "but often days intervened," in which, doubtless, the grievances complained of, or the incursions upon other territory to be decided upon, were pretty thoroughly ventilated and settled.

Upon assembling they sat down promiscuously, like a crowd, all armed. The priests acted as chairmen. The honor of being heard first was accorded to the chiefs, followed by others, according to age, warlike renown, or eloquence. The influence of every speaker was measured by his powers of persuasion rather than from any authority to command. If the speaker's proposition displeased them they rejected it in low murmurs of dissent; if, to the contrary, it pleased them, they brandished their javelins. The most honorable manner of signifying their assent was by the sound of their arms. They were allowed to present accusations in these assemblies, and to prosecute capital offenses. Punishment varied according to the heinousness of the crime. Traitors and deserters they hung upon trees; cowards, sluggards and prostitutes they smothered in the mud and marshes, under heaps of hurdles. In lighter transgressions, the delinquent upon conviction was condemned to pay a certain number of horses or cattle; part of this was given to the chief or community, part to him who had been redressed, or to his next of kindred.

In the same assemblies the chiefs were chosen and such rulers as administered justice in communities or villages. To each of these, one hundred persons, chosen from amongst the populace, were assigned to assist him in the execution of his authority and to bestow upon him their counsel

In their worship, the exalted and peculiar religious views of this ancient people—which to this day is a distinguishing feature of the Germans—cannot be better described than in the words of Tacitus himself :

“From the grandeur and majesty of celestial beings, they judged it altogether unsuitable to *keep the gods within walls or to represent them under any human likeness*. They consecrated whole woods and groves and named them after their gods. In mental reverence and contemplation here they repaired to worship.”

In other words, to these barbarians, as opposed to every other religious people at that time in Europe, a deity was altogether too sacred and sublime a being to be fashioned into the likeness of a human form, representing as it does the frailties and passions, loves and hates of man. The Great Unknown was most fittingly worshiped in an edifice built by himself for his terrestrial children, the pillars of which were the primitive, majestic trees of the sacred groves and its roof the blue canopy of heaven.

From the above description of the customs, habits, manners and laws of these early Germanic tribes, drawn principally from the writings of contemporaneous historians, it will naturally occur to the reader, that a people of such original and exceptional traits of character, must at no distant day carve out for itself a brilliant destiny, and eventually become a dominating power among the nations of the earth.

**Die Hunnen in Deutschland.**  
**THE HUNS IN GERMANY.**





Karl der Große tauft die Sachsen.  
CHARLEMAGNE INFLECTING BAPTISM UPON THE SAXONS.



## CHAPTER II.

### CONFLICT OF THE ROMANS AND TEUTONS.

**A**T THE period described in the foregoing chapter, which may be called Germany's infancy, Rome was nearing the zenith of her splendor and power. Her dominion extended over nearly the whole of Eastern Europe, Asia Minor, Egypt and a broad strip of territory bordering the Northern Coast of Africa.

In the nearly seven centuries of her political existence Rome had passed through all the stages incident to the growth of a nation. She had struggled through the early stages of government from tribal association to a kingdom, and from a kingdom to a republic, and was nearing a still greater change. After the assassination of Julius Cæsar, Rome was the greatest power that had ever existed, and yet, in the midst of her greatness, the germ of dissolution was already discernible.

As her power rested upon force, and not upon the patriotic sentiment of a people enjoying equal rights, it ought to have been apparent to her statesmen that a republic, of which but a small fraction of its male inhabitants were enjoying the privileges of citizenship—only 463,000 in 70 B. C., according to the Roman census—lacked the very essence of political permanency, and that owing to the want of a deep sense of morality, love, and respect for family life, the social condition of Rome was keeping pace with its political degeneracy.

The aristocracy, proud of their wealth and ancestry, were absorbed in the enjoyment of luxuries, and, by a

long exercise of power, had come to look upon the high magistracies and seats of emolument as belonging by right to their caste.

As Cato, in a speech before the Roman Senate, tersely expressed it: "In the place of the virtues of our ancestors we have avarice and extravagance; we praise the wealthy and honor idleness; between the good and the bad there is no distinction, and all the rewards due to merit are bestowed upon the unworthy. Since every man withdraws himself from public interests, consulting only his own, should we be astonished at the state of our country's affairs? At home slaves to voluptuousness, in the Senate slaves to wealth and favoritism."

Rome demanded and received her share of the gain of the known world. Her ships sailed the waters of every known sea, laden with trophies and spoils from every clime.

While riches flowed in rivers into the public coffers, immense fortunes were amassed by individuals, military commanders and state officers. Thousands of slaves were sold to work in the fields in chains by day, and to sleep in dungeons at night, to prevent their escape.

In the houses of the powerful and wealthy, learned Greek captives were retained as school-masters, sophists, sculptors, painters and poets.

Splendor in dress and equipage, and extravagance in every form prevailed among the ruling classes.

Private residences were erected at a fabulous expenditure, with immense columns of black porphyry, floors in mosaic, the inner walls covered with paintings, and ceilings adorned with gilding and carving in ivory.

Upon their villas imagination was taxed to lavish

wealth. Gardens bloomed in tropical splendor, and parks stocked with wild animals, which at sumptuous feasts were called from the wood by slaves, dressed as Orpheus playing the lyre. At their principal meal, reclining upon couches, seven courses, with wines, desserts and fruits, were served.

The elevating ideas of the mythology of their forefathers had given place to sculptured marbles and taxing shrines. Belief in the dead pagan gods had perished and the Roman had no God at all to look up to.

Steeped in pleasure, given up to a life of licentiousness, Rome had become the sink into which every polluted stream flowed.

Such is the superficially drawn picture of the political and social condition of Rome at the time of her first encounter with the primitive children of the Northern forest—the Teutonic tribes.

Kingsley has beautifully illustrated the five hundred years of contention between the cool, false, politic Roman, grown gray in the experience of the forum and the camp, and this fresh young barbarian of the German wilds.

Fancy to yourself a Troll-garden—a fairy palace, with a fairy garden—and all around primeval forests. Within the garden dwell the cunning and wicked Trolls, watching their fairy treasures and making rare and strange things at their magic forges. Without, in the forest, are such children as the world had never seen before—children in frankness, purity, love, tenderness of conscience and devout awe of the unseen—children too in fancy, ignorance, jealousy, quarrelsomeness and the desire for excitement and adventure—the mere sport of overflowing animal health. They play unharmed with the forest beasts; but,

finally, the forest becomes too dull and too poor for them, and they approach the Troll-garden and begin to wonder what is inside. It is easy to imagine what would happen. Some of the boldest clamber in; some the Trolls steal and carry into the palace. Few escape, but enough to tell how the Trolls killed their companions, and of the marvelous things to be seen in the palace,—shoes of swiftness, swords of sharpness, and caps of darkness; of charmed harps, charmed jewels, and, above all, of the charmed wine; and after all the Trolls were kind to them—see the fine clothes given them—and they strut proudly before their marveling comrades. They return, but not alone. So the fame of the Troll-garden spreads; and more and more hurry away and steal in. They become as the Trolls, vain, lustful and slavish.

But their better nature flashes out at times. They will not be the slaves and brutes the Trolls would have them; they rebel, escape, and tell of the wickedness of the foul palace. Great indignation arises, and war between the Trolls and the forest-children follows. Still the Trolls can tempt and bribe the greedier or the more vain; and still the wonders inside haunt their minds, till it becomes a fixed idea among them all, to conquer the garden for themselves, to dress themselves in fine clothes and drink their fill of that maddening wine.

Again and again they break in, but the Trolls drive them out, rebuild their walls, till the boys of the forest have become youths, and the youths men, and still the garden is not conquered. The Trolls have grown old and weak, and their walls are crumbling away. The forest warriors still menace and defy them. They may succeed this time or the next.



**Der Ritterschlag.**  
**CONFERRING KNIGHTHOOD.**

And at last they do succeed ! The walls are breached, the fairy palace stormed, the Trolls conquered ; old, jewels, robes and arms—all that the palace holds—will be theirs, except their cunning.

As each struggles into the charmed garden the spell falls upon him. He drinks, fills his arms with precious trumpery, while another snatches it from him. Each envies his comrade before him, crying : “ Why did I not enter first ? ” And the Trolls set one against the other, and split them into parties, and mad with jealousy and wine, till they scarce knew why, they fall upon each other and upon all others who are crowding in from the forest, and they fight up and down the palace halls, and the Trolls look on and laugh and still urge them on in this unnatural war, till the garden is trampled into dust, their finery destroyed, and the pavement slippery with kindred’s blood. When the horrible dream is passed and the wine is out of them, the survivors stare shamefully and sadly around. What a desolate, tottering ruin the fairy palace has become ! Have they spoiled it themselves ? And what has become of the treasure ? No man knows. Nothing is left but recrimination and remorse. And they wander back into the forest, away from the doleful ruin, carrion-strewn, to sulk, each apart, over some petty spoil which he has saved from the general wreck, each hating and dreading the sound of his neighbor’s footstep.

This is neither more nor less than the story of the Teutonic tribes, and how they overthrew the Empire of Rome. Neither the picture of the dazzling splendor of the garden, the soft, beguiling character of its inmates, nor the susceptible, passion-enslaved period of its conquerors is overdrawn.

Therefore, when Tacitus, at the beginning of the encounters between his countrymen and this strong young race, saw that sooner or later the fate of Rome might rest in their hands, he sought by extolling their virtues, their physical power, their unparalleled reproduction, to warn the Romans of their threatened danger, which had become a brooding certainty in his own far-seeing mind. It came, after many years, about in this way :

It must not be forgotten by the reader that the Romans at this period were absorbed in the conquest of territory ; that Rome might be fitly compared to an immense military camp, with its concomitants. To satisfy the needs of the garrison, and keep bright and burning the adventurous spirit of their legions, the generals were always in a quandary to know what country to rob and enslave next.

Besides the regular foraging armies under their immediate commands, the conquered provinces were placed under the charge of consuls or military officers, provided with a force large enough to insure a speedy collection of the tribute demand.

After the decisive battle with the Roman general Marius, before mentioned, the next important action against the Germanic tribes was 59 B. C., when Cæsar was governor of Gaul. Some dispute having arisen between the Teutons, who, under the leadership of Ariovistus, had settled in large numbers upon territory west of the Rhine, and the tribes of Gaul, Cæsar was called in to settle it.

Before the battle which followed, at what is now known as the city of Besançon, in Lower Alsace, it is related that the badgering German chief asked Cæsar "if he knew what stuff his opponents were made of," adding



“they were warriors who had not slept under a roof for four years.”

Notwithstanding the boasting of Ariovistus, the weather-hardened barbarians were not a match for the mettlesome and war-begrimed Romans, and the result was a defeat for the German tribes engaged, who were compelled to retire to the east bank of the Rhine. During the succeeding years of Cæsar's government of Gaul he crossed into German territory twice, but was unable to hold his ground or subject its people.

Not until the appointment of Claudius Drusus, 13 B. C., as governor of Gaul were any noticeable advantages gained over the German tribes by the Romans. It is claimed that he made the way possible by digging a canal from the Rhine to the Yssel, through which he was enabled to reach the North Sea with transports of troops.

From this and the fact that 10 B. C. other victories were won, it would seem that the first real lodgement made by the Romans upon German territory was under Drusus. The far-seeing general, discovering the capabilities of the young and valorous race, and already aware of their dream of avenging the slaughter of their forefathers by Marius, through his diplomatic and generous treatment of them, succeeded in persuading numbers of chiefs, and princelings with their retinues to enter the Roman military service.

During the subsequent eighteen years of Roman occupation in Germany, more or less friendly relations existed between the conquered and their conquerors.

Upon the adoption of Tiberius by the Emperor Augustus as his heir, he was sent into Germany, where he gained some small victories; but it was through the des-

potic and meddlesome course of Quintilius Varus, who had been charged by the first Emperor to bring the German tribes under subjection, that Roman dominion was forever terminated in Germany. He began to annoy and irritate the people by dogmatically interfering with their primitive habits and customs, which they preferred to those of the Romans. He compelled them to relinquish the time-honored usage of administering their laws and justice through their own elected or appointed officials. He demanded that all German litigants appear before Roman judges opposed by Roman counsel.

This was a tyranny not to be borne by a proud people who had definite laws, founded upon the deep and broad principle of justice to all !

Again, he exacted exorbitant tribute from the different German tribes. Recalling all the former indignities suffered at the hands of the Romans, the treatment captives taken in war had received, the pollution of their wives and daughters sold into slavery, they were at last aroused to swift, determined action.

In response to this sentiment the noted chiefs assembled in secret and resolved on war. Arminius, a Cheruscan prince, but twenty-five years old, who had learned the art of war in the Roman army, but had remained loyal to his people and native land, placed himself at the head of the movement.

To induce a large number of tribes, living independent of each other to join an enterprise so dangerous was not an easy task; Arminius, however, accomplished it without arousing the suspicion of Varus.

When Varus was informed that a tribe in the interior had rebelled against Roman authority, and had slaughtered

many Roman soldiers, he marched against the insurgents with three of his most trusted legions, ordering his German auxilliary, Arminius, to follow and assist him. Arminius promptly executed the first order—that was, to call out his command, but instead of assisting Varus, he lead his troops to the rendezvous of his German confederates.

Incumbered with an immense train of wagons, pack-animals, camp-followers, women and children, Varus left his camp on the Weser at the end of October, 9 A. D. Marching his troops in a southwesterly direction, a few days after he reached the swampy, pathless region of the Teutoburger forest, in the vicinity of Detmold on the Wirre—the point agreed upon by the German confederates for a general onslaught.

Before fully realizing their danger, and before they were able to form into compact lines, the Romans found themselves surrounded and assailed from all sides. The impetuosity of attack completed the confusion, and forced the Roman soldiers to an unequal hand-to-hand combat with an enemy, vastly their superiors in bodily strength and agility.

The Romans fought with the fierceness of desperation, but after three days of terrible slaughter but few were left to tell the story of their disaster. Varus, himself unwilling to survive the destruction of his legions, threw himself upon his sword and perished.

This memorable battle, which forms a great episode in the national life of Germany, forever put an end to Roman dominion over the Teutons. The real merit of Arminius' success lay not so much in the strategy and valor he displayed in gaining the victory as in the wisdom and

sagacity with which he accomplished the unification of the various tribes in a contest for hearth and home. Had this great event served the Germans as an unforgotten lesson, they would have spared themselves many centuries of misery and degradation.

The crushing defeat of Varus had a very demoralizing effect upon the Romans, Augustus, the Emperor, shutting himself up for several days, and crying, "Varus, Varus, give me back my legions." Had Arminius chosen to follow up his victory by pushing across the Rhine and attacking the Roman province of Gaul, he could have exacted from Germany's enemy such terms as would have prevented the desecration of her soil ever after by Roman soldiery.

But, satisfied with the decisive result of the Teutoberger Wald, he ordered the tribes to return to their homes, to engage in the arts of peace. During the following five years the Romans made no further attempt to recover their lost ground, but confined their military operations to strengthening their position on the west side of the Rhine.

As with all victorious people, barbarians or otherwise, when the common enemy had disappeared the conquerors fell to quarreling among themselves. Such jealousies as the right of precedence in the councils, rivalries between the princes of the various tribes for seniority in command, and other disputes concerning the territorial limits of each tribe—in short, thousands of questions such as a newly correlating people would be called upon to settle—kept their fighting propensities from gathering rust and going to decay.

With the exception of the Marcomanni, which had fol-

lowed Ariovistus into Gaul, but had been driven back by Julius Cæsar, most of the strongest tribes acknowledged Arminius as their leader. Marodobuus, the chief of the Marcomanni, who had been educated in Rome with Arminius, but had not taken part in the Teutoberger Wald, Arminius suspected of coldness towards their common country, with a corresponding warmth of feeling for their common enemy, the Romans. He looked with jealousy upon Marodobuus' efforts to extend the boundary line of the Marcomanni, and the increasing of his military force. Arminius even suspected him of nursing an ambition to become "King of the Germans."

These dissensions, with the fact that Segestes, the father-in-law of Arminius, had succeeded in creating a seditious feeling among the Cherusicians, Arminius' tribe, having reached Rome, about the time of Tiberius' succession, 14 A. D., Tiberius resolved to seize this favorable opportunity to avenge the defeat of Varus.

Accordingly, Germanicus, the son of Claudius Drusus, in command of the Roman army in Gaul, was ordered to cross the Rhine. His legions coming upon the tribe Marsi, while celebrating an evening festival, they were completely routed. The following spring, 15 A. D., he entered the territory of the Chauci and devastated their country. Segestes, from whom Arminius had stolen his daughter Thusnelda, and made her his wife, being at war with his son-in-law, asked the Romans to come to his rescue. Germanicus, who had been appointed commander-in-chief of all the legions in Gaul, hastened to the relief of Segestes, routed the besieging force of Arminius, and upon entering the delivered town of Segestesburg, took many women prisoners, among them Thusnelda, who was delivered to Germanicus from her father's own

hands. She was taken captive to Rome, where a son was born to her, whom she called Thumelicus. Two years after, the barbarian queen, leading her little son, graced the triumphal procession unwillingly granted Germanicus by his uncle, Tiberius, who had become jealous of Germanicus' renowned generalship in Germany. In order to further humiliate and distress Thusnelda, and degrade the son of the great Arminius, Thumelicus was placed in the school of the gladiators at Ravenna. This story of Thusnelda's wrongs has furnished an ever beautiful theme for German poet and artist from that day to this.

In the year 16 A.D., Germanicus returned to Germany, determined to retrieve the loss he had sustained in being compelled by Arminius to retreat, after losing his cavalry and almost the four legions under Coecina. With an army of a hundred thousand men and a thousand vessels he reached the Weser. Between the present towns of Hameln and Rinteln, on the "*Nymphenwiese*," the two great warriors met, Arminius to be revenged for his wrongs, and Germanicus to make one more effort to subdue this unconquerable race. At first the Germans were supposed to be beaten, but rallying, the next day, compelled the Romans to fly. This is claimed to be the greatest battle ever fought between the Romans and the Germans. It was the last time the Romans ventured to cross the Rhine. Arminius is, therefore, considered the greatest hero of ancient Germany; but, great and patriotic and far-seeing as he was, he perished through the treachery of a relative, at the age of thirty-seven.

It now became evident to the Roman Government, that though apparently friendly, these northern barbarians were endowed with immeasurable powers of physical and intellectual resistance. If united into one great brother-

**Peter der Einsiedler.**  
**PETER THE HERMIT.**





hood, a result they seemed to be slowly approaching, notwithstanding their internal wars, they would not only be able to maintain their independence, but would become dangerous neighbors to the Roman-Gallic provinces across the Rhine. In coping with single tribes the Roman legions were always victorious, as in the subjugation of the Suevians, the Helvetians, the Marsi, the Cherusians, and even the powerful tribe of Marcommani; but with all the armed force which Rome could concentrate upon Germany's boundary, the Rhine, the German people, collectively, could not be brought under Roman subjection.

A change of policy was therefore resolved upon, both in military tactics and in the civil treatment of the various tribes.

The great natural defects of the German character — petty jealousy, quarrelsomeness and stubbornness in matters of trifling import — were well known to the crafty Romans. To take advantage of these became the policy of Rome. *Divide et impera* was resolved upon. Thus, in heaping honors and favors upon one tribe, the enmity and jealousy of the neglected tribe was excited.

Feuds, says Menzel, broke out between brother tribes in the interior, the defeated chiefs finding a welcome asylum in Rome. So fierce became this civil war that whole tribes were annihilated, nevermore to appear upon the page of history. Such was the fate of the Cherusians, the tribe which formed the nucleus of Arminius' union against Varus.

In describing the onslaught of one neighboring tribe upon the other, in which sixty thousand of the vanquished were left upon the battle-field, Tacitus concludes with the following invocation:

“May dissension ever reign among the Germans, and thus prevent the danger with which they threaten Rome.”

But hatred of Roman rule among the Germans was not dead, however much they warred among themselves. About 70 A. D. there appeared at Batavia a young patriot who was afterwards called Civilis, because he was "a friend of the people." Suspected of loyalty to the Germans, he, in company with his brothers, was thrown into prison.

They were beheaded, but Civilis was shown more favor, and afterwards released. Filled with revenge, and swearing not to trim his beard or cut his hair until his fellow-countrymen should cast off the Roman yoke, he sought the occasion of a midnight feast to excite them, by his eloquence, to determined action. Hostilities soon after began. The Germans serving in the Roman army deserted in great numbers and joined their friends. The allies prospered, until Cerealis, the great Roman general, was sent into Gaul with a fresh army. Although the Gauls had joined Civilis they were easily reconquered, and in the battles which followed Civilis was forced to retreat to the Batavian islands, where says, Menzel, "he opened the canals and caused a great inundation, by means of which he long bade defiance to the enemy. But, finding opposition unavailing, and honorable conditions being offered, he at length concluded a peace. His name was honored by both friends and enemies."

It was at this time that Tacitus penned the following lament:

"For nearly two hundred and ten years have we been conquering Germany. In a period of time so lengthened many have been the blows and disasters suffered on both sides. In truth, neither from the Samnites, nor from the Carthaginians, nor from both Spains, nor from all the nations of Gaul, have we received more frequent checks and alarms: for more invincible is the liberty of the Germans

than the monarchy of the Arsacides; for what has the power of the East to allege to our dishonor except the fall of Crassus? But by the Germans the Romans have been bereft of five armies, all commanded by consuls; these commanders, Carbo and Cassius, Scaurus Aurelius and Servilius Caspio, as well as Marcus Manlius, all were routed or taken by the Germans, not to forget the Emperor Augustus, who was bereft of Varus and three legions. Not without great difficulty and loss of men were the Germans defeated by Marius in Italy, or by the deified Julius in Gaul, or by Drusus or Tiberius, and soon after the mighty menaces of Caligula ended in mockery and derision."

During the twenty years following the peace of Civilis, Rome confined her operations to strengthening her possessions on the Upper and Lower Rhine. Her cities were ruled by governors who were appointed by the Roman Emperor and were only responsible to him personally.

The great object of Trajan was to Romanize the provinces lying on the frontiers of Germany. "Fortifications along the left bank of the Rhine and the right bank of the Danube," says Menzel, "virtually surrounded the frontier of the Roman empire with a chain of bristling castles. Watch-towers overlooking the distant country were constructed. The Rhine and Danube generally marked the boundary. Their banks were thickly studded with fortified towns, their streams made passable by bridges, and their roads constructed along the edge of the mountains, in order to secure a garrison against sudden attacks from the ambushed enemy."

A military road was constructed from the Neckar to Regensburg, lined with permanent intrenchments, interspersed with hundreds of towers, built of heavy masonry,

of which some of the ruins may be seen to this day. They are called by the people "Pagan Works," or the "Devil's Wall." Roman culture — that is, Roman extravagance and levity in morals — began to be introduced into the provinces. The Germans were seduced from their primitive ways, and their sons were persuaded to join the Roman legions. Theaters were built, palaces, amphitheaters — everything to attract the barbarian from his deep, dark forest home and his simple life of independence.

At the beginning of the second century A. D. the numerous tribes had been practically consolidated into four distinct groups: the Franks, the Saxons, the Alemanni and the Goths. In this consolidation they lost, in a degree, their old tribal independence. The management of their public affairs fell into the hands of a principal chief, and by gradual degrees a king was evolved — a petty king, but a king, nevertheless. The Saxons alone preserved their tribal autonomy.

This union naturally nursed the new feeling of nationalism, and emboldened them to make united and frequent attacks upon the Roman provinces bordering their territory. The Romans, however, began to have a wholesome fear of their restive enemies, and ventured no more across the Rhine nor in boats upon the North Sea. But to the southeast, along the Adriatic, where the Germans did not expect them and were not prepared, Marcus Aurelius (Antoninus) renewed hostilities in person about 168 A. D. He was met by the strong forces of the Marcomanni, Alani and Sarmatians, and was driven back to the frontier. For the next five years Antoninus remained at his post, giving and receiving battle, without once visiting Rome. It was during this period that the great battle renowned in history was fought upon the frozen Danube, the Romans

**Die vier Heerführer des ersten Kreuzzuges.  
THE FOUR LEADERS OF THE FIRST CRUSADE.**



driving their enemy far into Hungary. A later victory in the same campaign the Romans ascribed to Jupiter Tonans, because when the engagement was at its height a terrific thunderstorm overtook the armies and put to route the superstitious barbarians.

At the beginning of the third century a movement against the Romans began in another part of Germany, near the borders of Switzerland. The Alemanni collected a large force and descended upon the territory known as the "Black Forest," then tributary to Rome. They pillaged and destroyed everything in their course. They were not successfully checked until met by the Emperor Maximin, a Goth, who had been raised to the imperial throne by the Roman army, large numbers of which were Germans. In order to prove that he had renounced his country and kindred, and was a thorough Roman, he carried war and desolation into the very heart of his native land. His rapacity and cruelty finally brought down upon him the indignation of his troops, who assassinated him and his son at the siege of Aquileia.

From now on, the right bank of the river Rhine, with few interruptions, remained in the hands of the Germans. About the same time the Franks broke into Gaul, the Romans being unable to oppose any effective resistance. In the same manner the Alemanni, roving over the country, now plunging into Gaul, now into Roman territory about the Alps, encouraged the Goths to work over into Dacia (the Wallachia and Moldavia of to-day), defeating the Roman army and killing the Emperor Dacius, after which the Goths permanently occupied the country. This took place in the year 251 A. D.

The Roman Government, which since the fall of the Republic had been the costly bauble of a few ambitious

families ready to commit any deed of darkness to clothe themselves in the "imperial purple," was still countenancing such customs, upholding such institutions and disregarding such appeals for justice as eventually bring decay upon any nation.

During the following fifty years the various German tribes, becoming more aggressive, oftener made substantial inroads upon Roman territory ; but no event of sufficient magnitude occurred to interest the American reader until about 325 A. D., when the Emperor Constantine conceived the idea of elevating to the dignity of a state religion the doctrine "to render unto Cæsar what belonged to Cæsar." These unruly barbarian subjects, as well as the meek and lowly, must hereafter be brought to submit to the strong and powerful, in return for which injustice and oppression here they were to be rewarded hereafter in heaven.

A change in the religion of a people requiring time, in order to save the capital of the Roman Empire from the aggressive movements of the Goths on the Danube, the Persians in Asia Minor, and other tribes to the north, the seat of government was changed in 330 A. D. from Rome to Byzantium (Constantinople). From this epoch, it is claimed, Roman ascendancy began to cease. Constantine, surrounding himself with an army of 300,000 regulars, and reviving all the pomp and splendor of Oriental courts, actually believed he had saved his country and reëstablished her upon the throne of the world's empire. But he had not reckoned upon the great migration of peoples which was soon to take place all over Europe. As Kingsley describes this period between 400 and 500 A. D.: "It was like the working of an ant heap: like the insects devouring each other in a drop of water. Teuton tribes,



Sclavonic tribes, Tartar tribes, Roman generals, empresses, bishops, courtiers, adventurers, appear for a moment out of the crowd with a name appended, and then vanish, proving their humanity only by leaving behind them another stream of blood. But what became of the people, the men-slaves — the greater part of them if not all — who tilled the soil and ground the corn — for man must have eaten then as now? We have no hint. One trusts that God had mercy on them, for man had none."

The first real impulse to this great human deluge was given by the Huns or Tartar tribes, who having been walled out of China and, unable to subsist without plunder, were forced to move westward in search of other lands. They settled on the borders of the Caspian Sea. They are described as a raw-boned, broad-shouldered, flat-nosed, yellow-skinned people, mounted upon small, fleet horses, to which the Romans thought them grown, since they were known to live, fight and sleep on their steeds. They attacked their enemies with irresistible impetuosity and deafening yells; appearing here, there and everywhere at the same time. Without fear of death, wild with impatience to possess the fair territory of the abundant Southwest, they crossed the Danube, the boundary line of the Roman fortifications, destroying everything in their course.

Attila, their first great king, with a will as iron as his body, whom the Hunnish tribes clothed with supernatural powers, led them triumphantly on to deeds of plunder and death. Although permitting the representative chiefs to live in luxury, he himself practiced the discipline of a stoic in the rigorous and abstemious habits of his daily life. Dwelling in a large wooden house in a simple manner, at his public repasts, while his guests were served upon plates

of gold and silver, he ate from wooden dishes and drank from wooden cups. Contrary to the customs of the Oriental semi-civilized tribes, he permitted his wife to appear in public unveiled. It is said he even patronized letters, by employing the services of a poet to accompany him on his invasions, to chant in verse his deeds of valor and prowess. He was supreme in power, serving as law-giver, judge, and often executioner.

Towards individuals he was sometimes generous; towards humanity he was incapable of pity, and, therefore, was named the "Scourge of God."

Through the incursions of the Huns across the lower Danube, the tribes throughout the eastern and middle portions of Europe were set in motion. As one wave follows another upon the tempestuous ocean, so the fleeing peoples swept onward to escape the destroying hordes of Attila. Once in motion the objective point of all the European tribes appears to have been the fabled country "whose cities were paved with gold, where they might bathe, eat, and see twenty thousand gladiators fight, all at the public's expense."

The Goths, of all the Teutonic tribes in activity at this time, seem to have been the most endowed with heroic attributes. They are represented as "a tall, fair-haired people, clothed in shirts and smocks of linen, with gaiters strapped to the feet with bands of hide; their arms and necks encircled with gold and silver rings; the warriors of the upper class well horsed, and armed with lance and heavy sword, with chain-mail and helmet, well plumed. Their land was tilled by slaves, usually captives taken in war."

The Ostrogoth's (East-goths) country stretched from the Volga to the Borysthenes; the Visigoth's (West-goths)



Burg Hohenzollern vor der letzten Erneuerung.  
THE OLD HOHENZOLLERN CASTLE.

from Borysthenes to the Theiss. Kingsley says, "From the great German-Gothic people, now much intermixed, have sprung all the old royal families of Europe."

As early as 245 A. D. the Goths had tasted the fruits of victory, having penetrated as far as Athens, in Greece, and upon their return to the steppes and snows of Russia could not forget the beauty and wines of the sunny South.

The story of the first attack of the Huns upon the Goths, history gives as follows: About 350 A. D. Ermanaric, King of the Goths, after he had conquered all the surrounding tribes, and was a hundred years old, the chief of the Roxolani, one of the subjected tribes, plotted against him and sent for the Huns, far to the East, on the confines of Europe and Asia, to come and help him. Old Ermanaric tore the traitor's wife in pieces with wild horses; but the Huns came and the Goths were defeated, when old Ermanaric stabbed himself and died for shame.

Twenty-five years after, the Goths, unable to stand the repeated plundering expeditions of the Huns, begged the Romans to allow them to cross the Danube, "since some among them had embraced Christianity." The Emperor Valens gave them permission to come provided they would embrace Arianism, a religion so little and reasonably removed from paganism that it could be accepted with consistency by the Goths.

In coming over they were to give up their arms, and deliver their children (those of rank) as hostages, to be educated as Romans. Says Kingsley further: "They were whole days crossing the Danube, and those set to count them gave up in despair. When they had crossed, they delivered up their children, but kept their weapons, although at the price of many a Gothic woman's honor." They had to be fed until they could cultivate their land,

and the two governors of Thrace, who were to provide food, pocketed the money and starved the Goths. A little meat cost ten pounds of silver, and when all was gone they were forced to sell their children for the Roman slave market. At last the end came, and the Romans paid dearly for the wickedness of Valens. Alaric, the king of the Goths, a great general, after nearing many times and retreating, and nearing again the great city, which he believed he had been born to take, at the head of all the united Gothic tribes marched into Italy; encamping before the walls of Rome, his army waited "as wolves wait round the dying buffalo."

The Romans, though starving within, boasted of their great resources and numbers, when Alaric cried out incredulously: "Come out, then; the thicker the hay the easier mowed." They, however, were afraid to come out, and so finally sued for peace. Alaric consented to withdraw on the payment "of 5,000 pounds of gold, 30,000 pounds of silver, and a like quantity of costly articles of commerce, which at that period flowed into Rome from every quarter of the known world." To meet this demand they were compelled to melt the golden statue of victory, in which fatality the Romans foresaw the ruin of their city.

Alaric, although promising a respite to the Romans for a time, soon found a pretext for renewing his operations. In order to make sure of an entrance into Rome he is said to have sent three hundred German slaves to wealthy families as presents, who, upon Alaric's approach with his army, opened the gates at night, by which the fabled city fell into the hands of the Gothic king on the 24th of August, A. D. 409.

Says the historian Menzel: "For the first time since the invasion of Brennus, 390 B. C., the capital of the world

beheld the enemy which had so often been led in triumph through her streets in chains, thrown to the wild beasts in her amphitheater, or doomed to cruel slavery, now appear as a bloody and inflexible conqueror, armed with the sword of vengeance, repaying all the crimes committed against the liberties of nations in general, and against the Teutonic tribes in particular." Soon after this victory the great Alaric died, at the age of fifty-four. To provide a secret sepulcher, the river Baseno was diverted from its course, and the monarch was buried with immense treasure in its bed, after which the stream was again turned into its natural channel. About this time the Franks and Vandals had conquered Gaul, and partially subdued Spain. The Vandals soon penetrated as far as Sicily, and later the Suives took Spain wholly. Two other of the Teutonic tribes, the Saxons and Angles, had gone over to the assistance of the Britons, who had been attacked by the Celtic-Picts and Scots. After driving the enemy back into the mountains, these Angles and Saxons remained in the country, not having taken part in the conquest of Rome, and consequently were the ancestors of the English of to-day.

In point of sterling qualities the Angles did not compare with the Goths and other Teutonic tribes of the south of Europe.

It would have been natural to suppose, that, in becoming politically united with other races, and by compulsion forced to adopt other customs and manners, the Germans of central Europe would have lost many of their national peculiarities, modes of thought, and, as a people, have undergone a radical change in characteristics. But such was not the case. They strictly maintained the spirit of their laws, discouraged the marriage of Germans with Romans, and the adoption of their unfamily customs of life.

The next great movement against Rome after Alaric's death was undertaken by Attila, the king of the Huns. Kingsley describes the battle briefly as follows: Valentinian, emperor of the Roman empire, had confined his sister Honoria in a convent for some profligacy. Sending her ring to Attila, he decided to become her champion. Starting for Rome, he decided to try Gaul first; into Gaul he poured with all his Tartar hordes, and the Teuton tribes he had gathered in his progress, as an avalanche gathers snow in its course from the mountain's side.

Under Attila were Huns, Slavs, Tartars, Finns, some Teutonic tribes, Turks, East-Goths, and Lombards. Against him were the Romans, West-Goths, Franks, Burgunds and the Brétons of Amorica.

Attila's force was 500,000 strong. Destroying the Roman fortifications on the south bank of the Danube, he swept across the territory now known as Austria, Bavaria and Franconia. A protracted siege against the Romans followed at Orleans, which was raised by the approach of the Roman allies under command of Theodorick, the Goth, the Roman forces being commanded by the famous general Aetius. In this great contest which was to follow, Germans were set against Germans, and Germans were consequently the greatest sufferers.

The battle was fought on the plains of the Marne, near Chalons. It was the most sanguinary conflict yet recorded in history, and is called in German *Hunnen-schlacht*. It lasted only from sun to sun, but so great was the deadly determination to annihilate each other that 200,000 men were left upon the battle-field as the result of the day's contest. Attila's army was beaten, and the Roman allies were too weak to prevent the retreat of the remnant of his army back to Hungary. Says an old



historian of this battle: "Antiquity tells of nothing like it. A fight gigantic, supernatural in vastness and horror."

In 452 A.D. Attila advanced again upon Rome, but upon the entreaties of the Bishop Leo I. he was induced to withdraw. Attila was assassinated 454 A.D. on his way out of Italy, it is said, by the hand of a beautiful Bergundian girl, Ildico (Hildagunde). His body was enclosed in three coffins, gold, silver and lead, and, surrounded by his whole army on horseback, the funeral ceremonies were conducted. To render impossible the discovery of his grave, the men who prepared it were put to death.

Germany was now in a most deplorable state. Her cities, villages, her public edifices, constructed by the Romans and themselves, were laid in ashes. Whatever had been reared by human hands was swept off the face of the earth by the plundering tribes. Soon after these destructive events had taken place the German general Odochar, the son of a high official of Attila's court, who had risen to distinction in the Western Empire, was placed in command of the German auxiliary army of the Romans.

Conscious of his strength, his mind filled with plans not unlike those formed by Alaric, he suddenly demanded a division of the Roman territory between the Roman general Orestes, who was to have one-third, the young emperor Romulus Augustus a third, and himself a third. Upon being refused he turned the German troops against them, killing Orestes and taking the Emperor prisoner. This victory gave Odochar the opportunity to proclaim himself "King of the German peoples of Italy," which he did in 476 A.D. Thus it came to pass, after twelve hundred and twenty-nine years of her existence, Rome fell at the hands of the Germans; but, as the historian

Scherrer honestly says, "Not so much through their designs and power, as because fate so willed it." Rome was no longer able to stand against the united attacks of the Forest Children, and the Troll garden was entered at last. "And the fairy treasure—what had become of that? No man knew. Nothing was left, and back they go and quarrel apart over some petty spoil which had been saved from the general wreck."

Thus, for five hundred years from the day when Arminius coaxed Varus into the morasses of the Teutoberger forest, was the history of the German peoples inextricably interwoven with that of the Romans. What would have been further accomplished by Odoacher, had he lived, it is hard to surmise. During his short lease of power he established order throughout the Empire, distributed the Germans among the Romans, gave them a third of the landed property, and allowed them to retain their customs and laws.

Says Menzel: "After the fall of Rome, the Latin tongue and the refinements of the south greatly influenced its conquerors, and drew a broader line of distinction between them and the Germans still back in the wild and trackless forests; Christianity also caused a still wider separation between the converted and pagan tribes. These circumstances, combined with the hereditary feuds and restless war-loving character of the Germans, were turned to advantage by their kings, who, influenced either by zeal for religion, or by ambitious motives, carried on the struggle, now terminated with Rome, amongst themselves."

## CHAPTER III.

### FROM FALL OF WESTERN ROMAN EMPIRE TO END OF THE HOHENSTAUFENS.

**F**ROM the death of Odoacher, in 493, it is not pertinent to the story of the true German tribes to follow to its collapse the powerful Ostrogothic empire in 560 A. D., nor to trace the struggles of the Visigoths to their final extinction. Suffice it to say that King Theodorick (Deitrich) left his impress upon the pages of history as the Goth "who first attempted to found a civilized and ordered state upon experience drawn from Roman sources."

The most active of the Teuton tribes at this time, were the Thuringians, Suevi, Saxons, Bavarians and Alemanni. The territory occupied by them was bounded on the east by the rivers Elbe and Saale, on the west by Gaul, on the south by the Alps. The Franks, *originally German*, being formed of the Alemanni and Catti tribes, settled on the left bank of the Rhine, and in time took possession of the whole of Gaul. The Frankish nation was founded by Clovis, in 481 A. D. He changed its ancient name of Gaul to that of France. He married the famous Clotilda, whose whole family, with the exception of a sister, had been murdered by her uncle Gundebald of Burgundy. The legend of their marriage is a very pretty romance to read, and has the merit of being true. Clovis was converted to Christianity by the result of a battle. During its progress, seeing that defeat was possible, he

swore in case he was victorious to forsake Wodin, the God of his fathers, and embrace the religion of his Christian wife, Clotilda, should he be victorious. The battle being won, faithful to his promise he was baptized at Rheims about 496 A. D. The Catholic bishops of all Gaul now assisted him in strengthening his power. He made accessions to his territory, which extended from the Rhine to the Pyrenees. Clovis is said to have laid the groundwork for a complete revolution in the internal policy of Germany and France. He was the first and greatest king of the Merovingian dynasty. The Gauls having been early conquered by the Romans had earlier adopted the manners, customs, and language of the Romans. When subdued by the Franks, the historians say, "the Frankish people were superior to the other German tribes. They were ingenious, brave and enterprising. Trained to war, accustomed to victory, fired by ambition, and favored by their position, they acquired and maintained a power against which none of the other states were able to make perceptible inroads."

Clovis' sons were each given a fourth of his kingdom at his death, which occurred A. D. 511. The Rhine country, Austrasia, fell to the eldest, while Neustria was given to his second son. The real German tribes were the Austrasians, while the Neustrias were the more Romanized Franks, or, as some historian calls them, "the weak and licentious Franks."

The Merovingian kings were of this last type, mere phantoms of royalty, who although wearing crowns were governed by mayors of the palace, or high chancellors, provided by the Austrasians, or Germans. These mayors assumed the title of duke, and in time gained absolute possession of the Frankish kingdom.





Pepin, a mayor of Dogobert's palace, was the first of the dynasty to succeed the lazy Merovingian kings. Although allowing them still to reign, he governed the country. After Pepin I. came Charles Martel. He was the natural son of Pepin I. Under Martel the old feud between the Germans and French was renewed, the former upholding Martel and the latter the legal kings.

Martel, taking the matter into his own hands, settled the difficulty by seizing the reins of government and making himself sole ruler. To him is ascribed the glory of having delivered France from the pagans of the East, from the Mussulmen of the South, and saved Christendom once and forever from the dominion of the Turk. The celebrated battle of Poitiers, A.D. 732, was a turning point, or an epoch, in the history of Europe which has served as the text for many a congratulatory sermon by both Catholic and Protestant divines.

It was at this battle, in which he killed numbers of the enemy by striking them upon the head, that he gained the name Martel (a hammer). He died in 714 A. D., and was succeeded by his son, Pepin "the Short." Pepin extended his domain into Italy, the Lombards becoming tributary to France, and through his generosity to the ecclesiastical power at Rome he was aided in maintaining his supremacy. He was a sagacious ruler, using his authority to strengthen the Austrasian influence.

About this time the Anglo-Saxons of the far-off isles to the North had become celebrated throughout Christendom as a very religious people. Their professions and life were more in accordance with the teachings of the early apostles than was that of the Franks. Their doctrines were simpler; consequently their monks were in great demand as evangelizers in Germany and France.

The Frankish Church, which had not been able to make much headway among the pagan Germans to the north-east — these several tribes judging more by the practices of a people than by their professions — in looking about for an energetic missionary fixed upon a famous religious enthusiast, called Winfried the Monk. He was asked by the Church of the French to go over into heathen Germany, and tell them all about the new religion. Winfried, who was an ideal missionary, consented, and entered upon his task with energy and zeal. The way in which he carried on his conversions was bold and somewhat hazardous. It is related that in his wanderings through the pathless forests and waste plains he came upon a multitude of Germans, who had surrounded an immense oak, sacred to Wodin, and were engaged in worship. Seizing an axe, with many loud strokes and loud exhortations Winfried leveled the tree to the ground. The awe-struck heathen, expecting the monk to be instantly punished for this sacrilegious act through some supernatural power, which not being done, they began to lose faith in the infallibility of their deities, and to listen to the missionary's story. Winfried obtained great power over several tribes, but with the Saxons he made no headway.

Pepin having concluded his alliance with the Pope in 755 A. D., Winfried became the King's most strenuous supporter. His purpose of life was "the unity of the kingdom of God on earth; the fraternization of all mankind, gathered under the care of one shepherd, the Pope, Christ's vicar upon earth, and the substitution of the Latin language as the only authorized language of the Church." He saw the needs of the people also in a material point of view. Seeking fertile ground in the heart of the dense forests, he gained permission to establish industrial col-



onies, called monasteries. Soon the earth began to blossom and produce fruits for the needs of man. His communities were started upon the theory that the chief aim of man ought to be the worship of God and solicitude for the welfare of man. These brotherhoods not only became the Christianizers, but the civilizers of the age. The monastery established by Winfried at "The Glade of Oaks," afterwards called Fulda, was given four miles in extent upon which to build a church, a seat of learning and monastery. Here Winfried, the Anglo-Saxon monk and missionary, was buried. Since canonized he is called St. Boniface, and is considered the father of the German Catholic Church.

The most renowned king of the Carlovingian dynasty, which now had settled its supremacy over the Merovingians, was Charlemagne, born at Aix la-Chapelle A. D. 742. He was the son of Pepin "the Short." Legends exist giving the most wonderful evidence of his strength of mind and body when a mere child. He measured seven of his own feet, says history; his feet doubtless being full twelve inches. "His head was round, his eyes large, and his nose somewhat exceeded moderate proportions. His gray hair was beautiful to behold." His crown, which is preserved in Vienna, is of gigantic size. Foreign clothes he would never wear, except at Rome and at the Pope's request. His habits are thus described in history: Never indulging in excesses or luxury, and maintaining his strength by daily exercise, he was the ideal of a powerful ruler. He ascended the throne at the age of twenty-six. Upon his brother's death he united the whole of Gaul and Western Germany; "urged on by an uncontrollable ambition, he burst through every barrier that opposed his entrance into the great and brilliant course he was

destined to run. His fame, like the sun at early morn, obscured by rolling clouds, shone forth, again and again, with undimmed luster. His energetic and creative intellect, ever actively and simultaneously employed in conducting his wars abroad, and in improving the internal condition of his empire, changed the aspect of affairs, not only throughout Germany but throughout the whole of Europe, to a new and important era. With him, the history of ancient Germany closes. All the ancient free German states and kingdoms were united within the limits of his immense empire. Antiquity sank into oblivion and the middle age commenced with his grand and brilliant reign."

. After his great wars, to wit: the destruction of Lombardy, the conquest of the Sâxons (the most stubborn and relentless of the pagan Germans), his wars in Spain, with the Slavi, the Avari of Hungary and Austria, and the Norsemen of Scandinavia, his empire extended from the Ebro in Spain to the Raab in Hungary; from Benevento on the south to the Eyder on the north. All of the German tribes in the north of Europe, except the Anglo-Saxons and Scandinavians, were for the first time united under one sovereign. All the Western Romans, with portions of the country east of the Elbe and Saal, inhabited by the Slavi and the Avari of Hungary, were within his domain.

The act which has come down through the long pages of history, and which has fixed the character of the man most firmly in men's minds, is termed, "Charlemagne's mass conversions of the Saxons," a task which he was thirty-two years in accomplishing. Religion was offered to these pagans at the point of the sword. It was, "believe or die," and they believed: a practice which was



**Die Schlacht bei Doffingen.**  
**BATTLE NEAR DOFFINGEN.**

continued several centuries after Charlemagne's death by one power or the other ruling in Germany.

Under Charlemagne's masterful sway the Catholic Church, or, as it was then called, the Christian Church, was placed upon a firm spiritual and material foundation. He established many powerful bishoprics in the interior of Germany, which came to be arms in the hands of the pontifical power at Rome, to keep in check the ambition of Germany's emperors.

While he lived, however, his word was law. Pope and clergy bent submissively before him. He was, although a man of martial spirit, the patron of learning, the ancient legends and ballads of the various tribes being collected and written under his direction. He founded academies and furnished to the people masters for learning writing, arithmetic and singing.

Under his reign the first German grammar was written. Besides encouraging agriculture, he granted special privileges to merchants. He protected the Jews against pillage by severe laws; built roads for the transportation of merchandise, and in many ways encouraged trade. Previous to his death he crowned his son as associate emperor. By his father's direction, Louis took the crown from the "Lord's Table," and placed it upon his own head, to signify that it was through divine rather than through human interposition that he was allowed to wear a crown. Thus was monarchy "by the grace of God established in the year A. D. 813." Charlemagne died in 814, and was buried at Aix-la-Chapelle, where, upon his tomb being opened by Otto III., the great Charlemagne was found sitting upright upon a throne, attired in his imperial robes.

Louis the Pious was unable to keep intact the immense territory bequeathed him by his father—an empire which

consisted of many peoples united by conquest. By the treaty of Verdun, 843 A. D., the Empire was divided between Louis' three sons. Lothair was given Italy, Charles the Bold France, and Louis that portion of the Empire east of the Rhine, west of the Bohemian forest, and north of the Danube, and called Germany.

Owing to the weak rule of Louis and his sons, the nobles, who formerly were mere officers of the King, began to rise in power. They had gone so far as to ask that their titles become hereditary. Charles the Bold of France, just before his death, granted their request, at the same time extending the right of inheritance to all the fiefs. Thus was firmly established the feudal system in Europe in 877 A. D. It was only a revival of an ancient system of the German tribes,—the use of property, lent, upon stipulated conditions, to emancipated slaves, poor freemen and armed followers. The rich conquered provinces having been given by the kings to their most brave and noble adherents, they were called counts (*grafs*). This property served for the support of the large retinues swearing allegiance to its owner, the owner in turn swearing allegiance to his king. These dukes and *grafs*, or counts, ere long possessed all the honor, all the influence and all the wealth of the country. With their followers they elected the kings, and often the kings were forced to purchase the loyalty of their nobles.

About this time, that is, after the division between Louis' sons, France became autonomous. A new language begun to be spoken, formed of the German and Latin, and her own princes aspired to the sole rule of the French people.

After the death of Louis the Child, the last of the five German Carlovingian kings, Conräd the Franconian suc-

ceeded in gaining the crown of Germany in opposition to the Saxon duke, Henry. At Conrad's death, after reigning five years, and at his request, Henry I. was elected king, A. D. 919. He must be considered as the founder of the independent German nation. Making war upon the duchies of Swabia, Bavaria and Lorraine, he established imperial authority over these dignitaries. His object was to lessen their power and increase that of the cities. The municipal privileges he granted were the foundation, of the German corporations which became so powerful in the twelfth century. The boundary line of Germany proper Henry placed as far east as Prague, and as far north as the Danish provinces.

The Saxon dynasty was not continued after the death of Henry I., but, as the dukes and princes still elected their king, a great gathering of the people, says the historian, had hastened from every quarter and encamped on both sides of the Rhine, between Worms and Mayence, to take part in the elevation of an emperor to rule over them. Dukes appeared in person, followed by processions led by margraves and counts, with banners flying and horses neighing. With equal state come the archbishops, bishops and abbots, with their pious but haughty retinues. The broad plain scarcely sufficed to hold the number of noble-born Germans, met to elect the successor of their dead King, who on his death-bed had recommended Count Conrad, but whose claim was opposed by his older cousin, Duke Conrad.

The election of one of these men was unanimously resolved upon, both of the competitors agreeing for the sake of the state to yield submissively to the will of the majority. The electors met and the first vote cast was for Conrad the Elder. All the bishops added their suf-

frages, and he was declared elected Emperor with one joyous acclaim. His cousin was the first to congratulate him upon his accession. Conrad II. proved to be one of the noblest sovereigns that ever swayed the scepter of Germany.

It is claimed that he was no slave to the Church, that when the Pope, without consulting him, raised the abbot of Reichenau to the Episcopal dynasty, Conrad prohibited its acceptance and caused the promotion document to be destroyed. Conrad II. died in 1039. His son Henry III. accompanied the funeral procession to Spire, and while passing through the town assisted in bearing the coffin upon his own shoulders. Henry's reign was noted for the continuance of a disposition inaugurated by Henry I., and continued by his father Conrad II., to keep back the clergy from meddling too much in state affairs. The Bohemians were the first to commence open warfare against Henry. They were supported in their rebellion by the Bishop of Prague, Severus. The war lasted two years, but the Emperor succeeded finally in defeating the Bohemians and their bishop.

Under the rule of Henry III. Hunagry was divided into counties, or *comitate* — its divisions of to-day. Vienna and the surrounding country were severed from Hungary and united to Austria.

At this time, about 1046 A. D., there was great uneasiness in the Church on account of the claims of three Popes to the pontifical seat: Benedict IX., who ruled from the Lateran, Gregory VI. from the Vatican, and Sylvester VII. from St. Maria Maggiore, all at Rome. Henry determined to put an end to this state of things, and, going to Rome, held a great ecclesiastical convocation at Sutri. Summarily deposing the three quarreling Popes







friedrich Wilhelm, der große Kurfürst.  
FREDERICK WILLIAM, THE GREAT ELECTOR.

he placed a German Pope, Clement II., in power, the three deposed popes returning with him to Germany. Clement was poisoned in a short time, and Damasus II., his German successor, did not live three weeks after his elevation. The Emperor then appointed a member of his own family, Leo IX., to the pontifical chair. He first attempted to abolish the sin of "simony"—the purchase of ecclesiastical benefices. He issued edicts rendering those engaged in such practices liable to the severest punishments. He met, however, with the most opposition from the German clergy themselves, and was forced to fly to the Normans, who fell at his feet in adoration of his noble qualities. Dying the next year, 1054 A. D., Gebhard, called Victor II., was appointed pontiff, who promised the world to continue the reforms begun by Leo IX.

Henry III. died in the Hartz mountains in 1056, in the prime of life. He maintained his royal authority without diminution against the attacks of the aristocracy and hierarchy, which was much to say of a king at that time, surrounded by opposing fiefs, dukedoms and warring nations. He left the Empire in the hands of the Empress Agnes, his son Henry IV. being but five years old at his death.

The story of the poor young prince, as told by Menzel, presents a picture verifying the maxim: "Uneasy rests the head that wears a crown."

The Empress, although a virtuous, highly cultivated woman, was totally deficient in that energy required to rule the wild and daring spirits of the age. Unable to bear despotic sway over the extensive and distant provinces bequeathed to her, as her husband had done, she sought aid through intermediating dukes.

About this time, Anno, Archbishop of Cologne, an

ambitious, stern-tempered man, more fitted to bear the scepter than the crosier, and who despised Agnes, was determined to seize the regency for himself. Several conspiracies were formed to take the life of the young Emperor. These failing, a plan was formed to gain possession of his person. The Empress and her son were invited to pass Easter at Kaiserswerth, 1062 A. D. After the banquet, under the pretense of showing the Prince a boat, he was taken to the Rhine, put on board a vessel, and taken away. The courageous boy perceiving it was the intention to separate him from his mother, leaped into the water, but was followed, caught, and borne back to the vessel. Although pursued on both sides of the river by the country people, and by the cries of the Empress for the return of her child, he was carried to Cologne as a prisoner. The heart-broken mother then resigned the regency and retired to a convent.

Anno, the archbishop who had planned his capture, caused a decree to be passed by the assembled vassals of the Empire, to empower the archbishop within whose diocese the young Emperor resided, to act as regent of the state.

Anno caused the boy to be thoroughly educated, compelling him to learn Latin like a chorister, and undergo the severest discipline.

The Popes were now to be elected independent of the Emperor; or solely dependent upon the votes of the cardinals, or highest ecclesiastics. Like the Emperor, he was declared ruler over the feudatories in his dominions. Many of the dukes wishing to free themselves from the rule of the Empire at this time, came under the Pope's submission.

Alexander II. being elected Pope by the cardinals,

Agnes when in power had caused the election of Honorius II. by the German bishops. A dispute having arisen between the two pontiffs, Anno, the regent, was called to Rome to settle it. He upheld the Pope elected by the cardinals, and Alexander II. remained in power. While Anno was absent the young Emperor had fallen into the hands of Adalbert, Archbishop of Bremen. He was the most learned and polished man of the age. By the gentleness of his treatment of the young Emperor, so suddenly changed from the severity of the former archbishop, Anno, the effect was soon found to be most pernicious upon Henry. The Saxons were ever at war with the archbishops, and Henry was taught to dislike them, as well as the sturdy German people. This antipathy followed him, and when he became Emperor caused him great uneasiness and trouble.

These bishops, archbishops and abbots were constantly quarreling to see who should gain the most power, temporal as well as spiritual. It is said the young Emperor witnessed a struggle between the Bishop of Hildsheim and the Abbot of Fulda for precedence in the church of Goslar, in which several men lost their lives. He heard, therefore, little but the ambitious discussions of the aspiring ecclesiastics in his youth.

When scarcely old enough to bear arms, he began to oppress the Saxons, who rose up against him, and soon surrounding him in his castle, he was only saved from death by escaping under the cover of night to Worms. Here the German dukes offered to assist him, but, afraid of their power, he appeared in the assembly of Upper Germany and pleaded for aid. When it was rendered the troops refused to attack the Saxons, and he was compelled to accede to their demands. The Saxons now razed every

fortress to the ground, and dragged the dead body of the Emperor's brother and his own son from the grave. This barbarous act brought every duke and prince of the Empire to join in an expedition for revenge. Henry soon found himself at the head of an immense army. Inspired by revenge, he attacked the Saxons; a bloody battle being fought at Langensalza. The peasantry were hewn down by thousands. Three years after the Saxons submitted to Henry, and the dukedom was presided over by Otto of Nordheim.

Pope Alexander II. dying, the son of a blacksmith, named Hildebrand, and who had been taken by Leo XIX. into his service, aspired to the empty chair at Rome. He was a man of great talent, and at the time of Henry's mother's (Agnes) regency, made extraordinary headway with his great purpose of universal ecclesiastical rule. Says Menzel: "So intense was the devotional feeling of the times that the Church merely required an energetic head, and the Empire a weak ruler, for the temporal power of the latter to pass into the hands of the former."

Hildebrand had been the moving spirit in having the Popes elected by cardinals without the aid of the Emperor. Being now chosen to Alexander's seat, under the name of Gregory VII., his first step was to decree the celibacy of all the clergy — the bishops and priests having families up to this date, the monks alone being compelled to renounce family life upon entering the monasteries. "Celibacy would control the ambition of the clergy by dissolving every tie between them and family, country and kindred, rendering them solely the servants of the Church. The German clergy opposed this measure with great earnestness, but they were finally compelled to submit. Gregory VII. made other changes in the election of bishops, and

declared all the property of the Church, which heretofore had been obliged to pay a tax to the Crown, now independent of the Emperor. He, in sum and substance, declared that "the Pope is through God and instead of God on earth; therefore, all powers, whether temporal or spiritual, are subject to Him. The Pope is the sun, the Emperor the moon that shines with borrowed light."

The Saxons who had suffered at the hands of Henry, laid their complaints against him before Pope Gregory, who, having before been appealed to by Henry, to aid in repressing these rebellious subjects, gave him the opportunity to act as umpire between them. Gregory haughtily commanded the Emperor to come to Rome in person, accusing him of "simony," and excommunicated the bishops who had served Henry's commands. The Emperor called a convocation of German bishops at Worms, A. D. 1076, and deposed Gregory.

Gregory now retaliated by releasing Henry's subjects from their allegiance to him and declared him deprived of his imperial dignity. With the exception of the inhabitants of cities, and the free peasantry, who still held to their ancient Germanic Constitution, "there was none so poor as to do him reverence." There was no help for him, unless he could free himself from the pontifical interdict. The election of a new Emperor was attempted while Henry was made a close resident of his castle at Spire.

In this state of embarrassment, Henry escaped, and with his wife Bertha and infant son, set out for Italy, accompanied by a single knight, said to have been Frederick, an ancestor of the Hohenstaufen family. The little company traveled over the frozen country, the coldest season within the memory of man, towards the land of forgiveness. They crossed the Alps, and Bertha, "whom

danger nor distress could separate from the King, was drawn over the ice seated on an ox hide."

When Gregory heard of Henry's arrival in Italy, and knowing that he would draw to his standard the disaffected bishops and Italian princes, for the safety of his person he entered the fortress of Canossa, being on his way to Augsburg. The Emperor, with his wife, knocked at the door of the fortress, and Henry was ordered to dispose of his wife and come alone. Obeying, he was allowed to enter the castle. The Pope was surprised at the Emperor's penitence, and assumed greater severity. Upon the gates being closed Henry was forced to stand between the double walls of the fortress, three days and nights without food, bare-headed and barefoot, dressed in a woolen shirt, pleading to be released from the interdict. Through the mediation of Matilda, an ally of Gregory, and on whose possessions the fortress stood, the Emperor was called into the presence of the pontiff. His approval was promised on condition that the final settlement of affairs in Germany should be left to himself, and that Henry should not resume the title of Emperor until permission was granted him by the Church.

Mass was performed; the pontiff taking the holy wafer in his hands, and breaking it in halves, said: "If the crimes which you accused me of at Worms be true, may the host that I now eat cause me instantly to die." Swallowing it, he continued. "Now eat the other half, and protest your innocence of the charges I make against you." The Emperor, refusing, was dismissed.

The Italian adherents of Henry, indignant at his craven spirit in thus humiliating himself, deserted him entirely. Stung by their scorn, he determined to shut Gregory up in the fortress and prevent his return to Rome. With a



knowledge of this determination the interdicted bishops and German laity flocked to Henry's standard.

A war of five stirring years now followed between the Emperor and Gregory; Germany was divided into two great camps: the Archbishop of Mayence against the Emperor, and in favor of Gregory; the Bishop of some other city against Gregory and in favor of the Emperor; clergy and Pope against Emperor and clergy; and so it went on, the Emperor using every effort to dethrone the Pope, and the Pope every effort to dethrone the Emperor. The first battle was fought at Melrichstadt, which was not decisive, Henry commanding in person, while Rudolph's forces (Gregory's adherents) were headed by Otto of Nordheim.

In 1080 another battle was fought, and Otto of Nordheim was victorious, after which Gregory conferred upon Rudolph the title of Emperor, and placed a new diadem upon his head,—Henry being in possession of the genuine crown of Charlemagne. But Rudolph was to hold the German Empire only as a Papal fief.

Henry was again excommunicated, and forthwith he convoked a German *concilium*, and deposed Gregory a second time, placing the Archbishop of Ravenna, as Clement III., in the pontifical chair.

Henry now attacked Rudolph, and the latter was killed, leaving Gregory's party without a leader. New adherents hourly flocked to the Emperor's side. Leaving his affairs at home in charge of the Hohenstaufen whom he had made Duke of Swabia, he hurried off to Rome for the purpose of humbling his old enemy, Gregory. Proceeding to the city he took it by storm, A. D. 1083. Placing Clement III. in the chair, he was solemnly crowned Emperor again. Gregory, who had fled to Salerno, returned

with a force of wild Normans, who proceeded to sack the city. The Romans collected in great numbers and drove the marauders away. Gregory again escaped to Salerno, where he died about 1085, saying: "Because I have loved justice and punished injustice I die an exile!"

After effectually settling his enemies, a respite from wars followed, and for a few years the Empire enjoyed a state of peace; but with a peaceful country came discord in the family. Henry had left his eldest son, Conrad, at the head of affairs in Italy. Marrying Iolanta, the daughter of Roger of Sicily, and afraid of losing the imperial crown of Germany, on account of his father's excommunication, Conrad caused himself to be crowned at Milan in 1095. For this act he was disinherited by his father, and died of remorse, it is said, A. D. 1101.

The already powerful Church party in Rome and Germany had enlisted in its service the poor but now famous monk, Peter the Hermit. As early as at the beginning of the tenth century it was customary for the very religious to make pilgrimages to Jerusalem to be able to pray at the tomb of the Savior of mankind. Their garb, a black cloak, a long staff, a broad-brimmed hat and a rosary, procured from Jerusalem, distinguished them from all the rest of the world. The Arabs, who were in possession of the Holy City, had permitted them to build churches and a hospital for the care of pilgrims, worn and sick with a year's journey on foot to Jerusalem. As the Jews had been the merchants of the East, and these Christian pilgrims were apparently in much better circumstances than themselves, a jealousy arose between them, which was the origin of a report that the church erected over the Holy Sepulcher was to be destroyed and the pilgrims would henceforth be refused admittance within the walls of

König Friedrich Wilhelm I.  
KING FREDERICK WILLIAM I.



Jerusalem. This disposition to keep out the Christians was attributed to the Jews, and the terrible persecution of this people in France, in 1011 A. D., was the result of this report. Upon the taking of Jerusalem by the Turks, about 1085, a general persecution of the Christians in and around the Holy City took place. This caused great consternation throughout Europe.

Peter the Hermit, returning from a pilgrimage, at the news, fired with holy zeal, determined to bring all Christendom to the rescue of Jerusalem. Seated upon an ass, he rode through Germany, exhorting and calling upon the faithful to enlist for warfare against the infidel, and to snatch from his despoiling hand the sacred spot containing the tomb of Jesus of Nazareth. This direct appeal to the whole Christian Church was received with religious enthusiasm.

For nearly a thousand years the people of Europe had been fighting for territory. Since the days of Charlemagne something had to be provided for the employment of the numerous retinue of vassals attached to every duke's, graf's, bishop's and emperor's person. Even a release from the wars of the Franconian dynasty, which had been mostly between the temporal and spiritual powers of the Empire, would have been sufficient excuse for the flying of the masses to arms, in order to reach a country where the nearness of God to man was believed to be greater than in their own land.

To his standard Peter brought thousands upon thousands. Associated with him, and a man of action, was Walter "Sensavehor," or, as the Germans called him and his followers, "*Habenichts*"—"have nothings,"—and they were rightly named.

Peter, pinning a large red cross upon his breast, made

a holy vow "with this to conquer." His converts followed his example, and thus was started the first military organization, called "The Crusade." Several pilgrimages had been undertaken as early as 1033 A. D., in which great numbers had gone together — as many as seven thousand joining Siegfried, Archbishop of Mayence, only two thousand of whom ever returned to their homes.

This first army of Peter the Hermit (forty thousand strong) was mostly composed of the fanatical poor, to whom any change was a boon. Every serf joining the holy ranks was declared free, and capable of bearing arms, the acme of every serf's ambition.

It was difficult to control so suddenly enlisted an army, made up of so many nationalities, and, consequently, before leaving Germany and France, many excesses and crimes were committed against the inoffensive Jews, who were derisively called "the Crucifiers of Jesus Christ." Hardly had the holy army reached Hungary and Bulgaria when dissensions arose as to where supplies were to be obtained. Robbery and foraging were compulsory; consequently but ten thousand of the great host were able to reach Constantinople, most of them having been killed in battles and starved to death. The spirit of adventure, which had never slept in Germany nor France among the higher classes, now had a new field opened up to it, and so enthusiastic did they become that many of the nobility spent their entire fortunes in fitting out expeditions for the Holy Land.

In 1096 A. D. Chevalier Godfred, Duke of Brabant, the old ally of Henry IV., raised a body of ten thousand horse and seventy thousand infantry. He was joined by dukes, counts and princes, the whole number of the crusading army being swelled to more than a hundred thou

sand men; some went by land, the French separating from the main body and crossing the Mediterranean Sea. Upon reaching Greece, their commander, Hugh de Vermandois, was seized and thrown into prison, and was only released upon condition that he acknowledge Alexius, Emperor of Greece, his liege lord. There was no alternative to the French crusader, and he took the oath. When Godfred arrived, although enraged at seeing the brother of the French monarch a subject of Greece, he, in order to gain an ally, took the oath of allegiance, when all the other princes and dukes followed his example.

But through hunger, fevers, and the battles of Antioch, and the siege of the Mohammedan commander, Kerbugha, the crusading forces were greatly reduced — some historians say to not more than three thousand knights and thirty thousand men. But while Kerbugha was playing a game of chess one day some of the crusaders succeeded in planting a black flag upon the highest tower in Antioch. Singing hymns, headed by Ademar, the Christians advanced upon the Turkish camp, and put their army to rout ere they were aware of what had taken place. Upon the falling of the Turks' camp into the hands of the starving troops of Ademar, a public thanksgiving was held and Bohemund was made Prince of Antioch.

The Mohammedans no longer opposed the advance of the crusaders. The Caliph of Egypt sent presents and gave them permission to worship in Jerusalem.

Their wearisome pilgrimage was nearing its close. They were at Necropolis, and as all were impatient to reach the goal, the remnant of the army marched all night. It is said an eclipse of the moon took place during the night, which was interpreted to mean the fall of the Mohammedan Empire. The crescent was to rule no more in

the East. Says Menzel: "At break of day on the 10th of June, 1099, the travel-worn and blood-stained Christians reached the heights of Emaus, and, suddenly beholding the Holy City, with one accord sank upon their knees, kissed the sacred soil, and sang joyful praises to God. But difficulties were still to be overcome; their number had diminished to less than two thousand horse and twenty thousand foot. The country around Jerusalem was an arid waste. The city was strongly garrisoned, and the harbor of Joppa was blockaded. But a Genoese fleet succeeded in landing its troops, who, hurrying to the aid of the Christian forces, assisted them in constructing high towers, but which, upon being pushed close to the walls of the city, were destroyed by "Greek fire." The pilgrims then began to march around the city in solemn procession, chanting hymns, and Peter the Hermit preached from the Mount of Olives. Their enthusiasm now rose to madness, and finally two men, followed by Duke Godfred, mounted the battlements. The crusaders followed, a deadly struggle taking place within the wall, and seventy thousand Mohammedans were slain. The Jews were burnt alive in their synagogues. Every infidel, of whatever nation, age or sex, was mercilessly destroyed. Jerusalem was taken July 15, 1099 A. D., and Godfred was made king. His brother, Baldwin, became Prince of Edessa; Bohemund was already Prince of Antioch; Tancred became Count of Galilee. These being placed in charge, the others of prominence returned to Europe.

The usual troubles of the successful soon overtook them, however. Internal dissensions between the victors followed; and so fresh crusades were inaugurated for two objects — to reap new fame, and to annihilate the Turk and extirpate Islamism forever. Many battles were



**Königin Sophie Charlotte.**  
**QUEEN SOPHIE CHARLOTTE, WIFE OF FREDERICK I.**



fought and many of the leaders killed, and still Islamism survived.

During all the first years, and until the taking of Jerusalem by the crusaders, Henry IV. continued Emperor of Germany, although excommunication had been pronounced against him again by Pasqual II., the Pope of the Church party. In 1104 his youngest and most beloved son, Henry, considering his father too old for the times, rebelled against him. His cause was supported by Pasqual, and the nobility who were opposed to his father; but the cities remained faithful to the old Emperor, with one exception. The two armies of father and son were brought up near Ratisbon for the contest, when the father, in the sorrow of his heart, says the historian, fled, perhaps too hastily. He still had many adherents in the Rhine country, and a conference was proposed between father and son. The Emperor came, and, struck to the heart at sight of his ingrate child, fell at his feet crying, "My son, my son! If I am to be punished by God for my sins, stain not thine honor, for it is unseemly for a son to sit in judgment over his father." This unnatural son appeared to feel remorse and started away to Mayence, where the Diet was being held. Succeeding in separating his father from his suite, he imprisoned him at Bingen, where the old Emperor was visited by several Papal bishops and requested to give up the crown jewels.

To this he would not consent, and arraying himself with Charlemagne's insignia of power, he defied them to touch him. The bishops were unawed, and succeeded in gaining possession of the jewels and carried them to Mayence, where they were placed upon the person of his son. The Emperor had not abdicated. That must be required by the Diet. The Emperor wished to visit Mayence to argue

his case, but his son, fearing his old adherents would rally around him, would only allow his father to proceed as far as Ingelheim, when, in company with the dukes of the realm, his son compelled him to sign his abdication. After escaping to Spire, and being refused assistance by the Bishop, whose cathedral the Emperor had richly endowed, it is said the old King was obliged to sell his boots for the wherewithal to satisfy his hunger. He died A. D. 1106. Two years after his son was proclaimed Henry V. His favorite saying was: "Men have much and various knowledge, but no one is thoroughly acquainted with himself." He is said to have fought sixty-five battles. The son's experience with the Popes was similar to his father's. He was a strong character, inheriting many traits from his father and grandfather, Henry III. His vigorous government soon brought down upon him the anger of his former Papal partisans, and it was not long before Henry V. was excommunicated by a synod held at Vienna and only because he refused to cede to the Pope his right of investiture; in other words, the right to give possession of any manor, office, or benefice to a subject. The Emperor took no notice of this action of the synod, but employed his Chancellor, Adalbert, to settle the matter for him at Rome. The Chancellor, as commanded, opened negotiations upon the basis that henceforth the strictest division between the powers of State and Church be adhered to — "the State never to meddle with ecclesiastical affairs, and the Church to remain unpossessed of lands and worldly wealth." This could not be agreed to by the Church, as the Chancellor well knew. But the basis upon which the Church would agree was this: That the Emperor resign his sole right to investiture; also the sole right of appointing bishops; to disclaim the right to Church lands and the royal dues from Church property.

This cut short further negotiations, and Henry, seizing the persons of the Pope and his cardinals, made them prisoners. A battle ensued between the Germans and Romans, in which the Germans were victorious. The Romans, reduced to extreme necessity, urged the Pope to conclude a treaty of peace with the Emperor. After two months' imprisonment Pascal yielded. The Emperor was to retain the right of investiture and Henry was never to be excommunicated as long as Pascal lived, and so Henry V. was crowned April 13, 1111.

Upon the Emperor's return to Germany the Pope was advised to declare the agreement void, it having been extorted from him by force. The dispute now raged for ten years. Although Pascal did not excommunicate Henry, many of the legates and heads of churches did, which occasioned fresh troubles in Germany between his adherents and the Church party.

After Henry's Chancellor, Adalbert, deserted him, and whom he had made archbishop of Mentz, frequent troubles arose in the north of Henry's Empire.

The Saxons, always ready for rebellion, joined the ecclesiastical party in favor of Lothair, as emperor of Northern Germany. Henry marched against them, won a victory, and the next year, 1114 A. D., married Matilda, the daughter of the king of England. It was on this splendid occasion that Lothair came barefoot, and, upon his knees, begged for mercy.

The Emperor had seen the power of the dukes and other rich vassals in his father's thirty years' reign, and determined to curtail it in his. These efforts raised fresh conspiracies, which were always supported by the ecclesiastical party, allied with the French. But the cities were all in favor of the Emperor, and whenever he called upon

them for men or means they liberally responded. Leaving Northern Germany to take care of itself for awhile, and placing Southern Germany under the guardianship of a trusty Hohenstaufen, Frederick of Swabia, Henry set out with a large army—30,000 horse, besides infantry and servitors—for Italy. Upon his approach Pascal II. fled from Rome, and the imperial crown was placed upon Henry's head by a Portuguese archbishop, the only prelate to be found who could be induced to perform the ceremony. The Emperor now proceeded to seize the rich lands willed to the Church by the Countess Matilda, Henry insisting that such ducal property should revert to the crown. Here he remained for two years, making friends. Whilst Germany was in the throes of a mighty controversy with Rome and her ally, the French, the princes and dukes continued their senseless disputes, so that but two cities, Cologne and Münster, remained zealous supporters of Henry, the former opening her gates to receive the Emperor and the latter expelling the papal bishop.

In 1122 a partial revulsion of feeling seems to have taken place. Henry had succeeded in surrounding Mayence, where Adalbert, his former Chancellor, but now at the head of the Papal forces, was encamped. The Saxons marched to the relief of Adalbert, but upon being met with such intense opprobrium by the other Germans, they became ashamed and a parley was held. A treaty of peace was held at Worms, where it was settled that the Pope should have the right to invest the bishop with ring and crozier, but the election should be made in the presence of the Emperor or his representative; that the new bishop receive his estates as a fief of the crown, etc. By this concession the bishops were more dependent upon





König Friedrich I.  
KING FREDERICK I.



Rome than upon the Emperor, and the throne was correspondingly weakened. Henry was freed from the interdict A. D. 1122. Soon after a war broke out between England and France, and the Emperor's brother-in-law, Prince William, having been drowned, Henry V., Emperor of Germany, was next in succession to the throne of England. The Emperor left no means untried to unite Germany and England in this struggle against France and the papal power. But the princelings, grafs and dukes only saw the diminishing power of the vassals and the increasing power of the State in such a union and refused to come to Henry's aid.

The Emperor was neither supported in his endeavors to lessen the troubles of the people. Says Menzel: "He expired in the prime of life, with the bitter consciousness of the defeat of all the schemes for the sake of which he had acted so criminally toward his father. A bad son, but a great emperor, whom misfortune might destroy but could not bend." Henry V. left no heir, and bequeathed his inheritance to Conrad and Frederick of Hohenstaufen, the sons of his faithful adherent, Frederick of Swabia.

#### THE SAXON DYNASTY.

At the close of the reign of Henry V. "the Church came forward as a new power, with its resources better organized than those of the Emperor, with a deeper influence over the people." Therefore it came to the point at last with Henry that the strength of the crown lay alone in his personal following. Henry V. was the last ruler of the Franconian dynasty. The next Emperor was Lothaire II., elected by the four nations, the Saxons, the Franks, the Bavarians and the Swabians, in the year 1125 A. D. He was elected on account of the support he had given to the papal party

while Duke of Saxony. He succeeded in defeating the Hohenstaufens, whom Henry V. had made his heirs, in several battles. His reign was marked by the Diet of Magdeburg, A. D. 1135, at which the first regulations of the German Empire were framed. He died A. D. 1137. At his death the great struggle between Church and State, which had commenced with Henry IV. and was destined to become the burning question for centuries, was now openly avowed and sides taken." On one side stood the pontiff at Rome supported by France and an un-German faction in the Empire called "Guelphs." On the other side was the "Emperor, who, besides defending the prerogatives of the State against the encroachments of the Church, sought more especially to uphold the interests and honor of the German nation against the Italians and French, in pursuance of which he was but too often treacherously abandoned by his own party in Germany." They were the Hohenstaufens and were called the Ghibellines from Frederick's birth-place.

#### THE HOHENSTAUFEN DYNASTY.

In the election which took place 1138 the Hohenstaufen, Conrad III., was elected Emperor because he was favored by the Pope. He is represented as having been a man of great beauty and intelligence. Scarcely had he been invested with regal power when the old feud broke out. The clergy themselves were not a unit in their opposition, some of the convents and monasteries objecting to the control of local bishops, claiming to be only responsible directly to the Pope at Rome.

The former personal and communal independence of the people was fast passing away. The Church assumed the all-directing power, to which the princes, as well as the

lowly German peasants were required to bear unquestioning allegiance. To this slavish obedience the Hohenstaufen objected, and the population of the cities and towns in whose breasts still burned the old German spirit of national independence, rose up to aid the Emperor in throwing off the ecclesiastical yoke. A characteristic episode is related of Conrad's early reign. In a siege which had lasted for some time against the fortified town of Weinsberg, the Emperor commanding the "Ghibellines," and Henry the Lion, duke of Bavaria, the "Guelphs," or the contending factions, a battle was fought outside the walls. Conrad was victorious over his rebellious subjects. All, with the exception of a small detachment of Guelphs entrenched behind the walls of the town, acknowledged their defeat: but these absolutely refused to surrender. This show of stubbornness so enraged the Emperor that he resolved to wreak vengeance upon the obstreperous garrison. He commanded that only the women and children should be allowed to walk out unharmed, but the men should be put to the sword, while the city was to be given over to the soldiery for pillage. Famine at last compelled the garrison to accept the Emperor's terms. The women marched out, and, throwing themselves at the feet of Conrad, supplicated him to modify his terms of surrender. Conrad at last impatiently replied: "Well, in God's name, each of you may take what she can carry from the city on her back, and be gone in peace; but no more. This is all I will grant." The astonishment of the Emperor can be imagined when, at daybreak the following morning and the evacuation was to begin, he and his soldiers beheld the women coming from the gates bearing upon their backs each a husband, brother or lover through the open gate. This womanly and unselfish act so affected the Emperor

that he permitted the whole garrison to withdraw without hindrance or molestation.

Conrad went on a crusade, supported by the French, but both armies were almost decimated; Conrad sick, and Louis of France discomfited, both Emperors returned to their respective dominions, determined, for the time being at least, to let the Turks have the East. His son dying, Conrad did not long survive him.

Conrad, the first Hohenstaufen, reigned fourteen years (A. D. 1152). The double eagle was introduced by him into the arms of the Empire. It was taken from the arms of the Greek Emperor, and was symbolic of the ancient Eastern and Western Empire.

There being no opposition to the claim of Conrad's nephew, Frederick Barbarossa, the crown was solemnly placed upon his head at Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1152, with the title of Frederick I. "He was remarkable," says history, "for his handsome and manly appearance, the genuine German cast of his countenance, which distinguished the whole family, and powerfully conduced to their popularity." Short-cropped, blonde hair, curling closely over a broad and massive forehead, blue eyes, well-curved lips, a fair, white skin, well-formed and muscular, combined with simplicity in dress and manners, and a pleasing portrait of this noble chevalier is had. His beard, which inclined to red, gained for him the Italian sobriquet, "Barbarossa." His accession to the throne was under the most favorable conditions, to wit: with the sanction of all the heretofore warfaring princes. A peaceable reign was therefore predicted, but such was far from being the fact. "Ever mindful of the greatness of his destiny, Frederick was at once firm and persevering, a deep politician and a wise statesman. He directed his principal attention to his most

dangerous enemy, the papal party." Bestowing prizes, such as the crown of Denmark to Sueno, and the Duchy of Bavaria in reversion to Henry the Lion, and more to those opposed to Hohenstaufen rule, he made preparations to march into the heart of the enemy's country. Too proud to bend the knee to the ecclesiastical powers in Italy, and deeming it his duty to jealously guard the imperial dignity of the German crown, he determined to secure the peace of his empire by the imposition of shackles upon the Pope. He believed the pontiff would never suffer him to remain peacefully in possession of his rights, and therefore he must carry on the war in his adversary's habitation and among his ranks.

Accordingly, in 1154, two years after being crowned, Frederick crossed the Alps, and called all the Italian dukes and princes with their vassals, to act as his body-guard in the field. All who refused were to forfeit their fiefs. The Ghibellines obeyed but the Guelphs refused. Milan sent a defiant answer. As the city was too well fortified to attack, the Emperor proceeded to level to the ground the surrounding cities in communication commercially with Milan. At Pavia he seized the iron crown of Lombardy (Italy) and began negotiations with Hadrian IV. to crown him. Rome trembled at Frederick's approach. "The Pope solemnly crowned him at St. Peter's, and the Emperor in return held the stirrup of Hadrian, which, being interpreted, meant that the spiritual power could not retain its empire without the aid of the temporal. Frederick caused the picture representing Lothair's acceptance of the crown in fee from the Pope to be burnt, and expressed his displeasure at the artful manner in which the Church falsely sought to extend her authority by saying: "God has raised the Church by means of the

State, but the Church seeks to overthrow the State. She has commenced by painting and from painting has proceeded to writing. Writing will gain the mastery over all, if we permit it. Efface your pictures and rewrite your documents, that peace may be preserved between the State and Church."

Troubles arising at home, the Emperor was forced to return to Germany in 1156, his two years' siege in Italy yielding no satisfactory results. Difficulties arose in Burgundy, which were no sooner settled than Poland was in arms. Peace being secured, Milan was found in insurrection over the collection of a tax. Frederick was again over the Alps with an army of 115,000 men, and Milan, after a year's siege, capitulated. He now ruled Italy with a rod of iron. Being called back to Germany to settle feuds, this task was soon finished by unseating one duke and placing a faithful vassal in his empty place.

In 1164, Pope Victor dying, Frederick, with England, acknowledged Pasqual III. as the rightful Pontiff, while the papal faction chose Alexander III.

This decision caused Alexander to look out for himself. The German army had openly affirmed "they wanted nothing but gold." This had raised the whole Italian people against them, and Alexander made a triumphal entry into Rome A. D. 1165, and there excommunicated the Emperor.

Again Frederick was off for Italy, where he invested Pasqual with the tiara, and himself was a second time crowned Emperor in St. Peter's, 1167. His fine army was nearly destroyed by a pestilence. On his retreat beyond the Alps, being hotly pursued, he ordered the hostages taken by his army to be hanged by the roadside. He narrowly escaped death himself, the Knight von Sieben-eichen placing himself in the Emperor's bed while the latter escaped under cover of night.

In 1174 Barbarossa again crossed the Alps, compelling Henry the Lion, of whom he was always suspicious, to perform field duty. The Lombard League assembled an immense army to oppose the Emperor. In 1176 a decisive battle was fought near Lake Como. Frederick was most disastrously defeated. He was reported dead for some days, but appearing at Pavia, where he found his wife in mourning for him, he was forced to acknowledge Alexander as Pope. The next year, at Venice, some historians say, Barbarossa was compelled to submit to the humiliation of lying prone upon the floor with Pope Alexander's foot upon his neck. Whether true or false, the Emperor was subdued, and soon after returned to Germany to discipline Henry the Lion. This duke, who was son-in-law of England's King, was exiled by Barbarossa for three years.

Peace now reigned in Frederick's domains, but the Emperor was never to know rest. The news that Saladin, the Sultan of Egypt, had succeeded in recapturing the Holy City, which had been in the hands of the Christians for eighty-eight years, with the added information that the golden cross upon the church spire of the Holy Sepulcher had been thrown to the ground and the crescent substituted, created profound consternation throughout all Christendom, causing, it is said, a terrible shock to the Pope, from the effects of which he soon died. His successor, Clement III., called upon the people and princes to hasten to the rescue of the Holy City. In response to his fervent appeals crusaders from all parts of the Empire flocked to Regensburg to offer their services to Barbarossa. Although seventy years old, the Emperor placed his son Henry in charge of affairs at home, and, at the head of an army of 150,000 men, set out for Palestine.

Scarcely had he reached the borders of the Greek

Empire when his hardships began. Isaac, the Emperor of Greece, contenting himself with calling himself "The Holy," allowed the famishing army of European crusaders to shift for itself. Barbarossa, having formerly declined to acknowledge the Emperor's suzerainty, or to do him homage, many difficulties naturally met the Emperor of Germany everywhere. His army was refused provisions; upon which Barbarossa gave his soldiers license to plunder and devastate the beautiful country of Greece. With this wholesome example before him Isaac "the Holy" was soon brought to terms. Placing his entire fleet at the disposal of Barbarossa, the army was enabled to reach Asia Minor. They were met by a swarming horde of Turks and Arabs, whose forces, in several engagements, were beaten by the crusaders. Before the battle of Iconium, when Barbarossa's army had been reduced to less than ten thousand active men, the aged Emperor hastened to the front, and while encouraging his troops the old Hohenstaufen war cry was borne to his ears upon the breeze, at which note of encouragement Barbarossa's son hurried forward with a portion of the army, defeated the Turks and entered the city of Iconium. Putting great numbers of the inhabitants to death, the crusaders obtained immense booty. Barbarossa, believing his son to be lost, burst into tears, upon which his whole bodyguard fell to weeping. Surrounded by the Sultan's forces, there appeared no way of escape for the Emperor; but, being equal to the occasion, old as he was, he rose to his feet, crying out, "Christ still conquers!" headed his chivalry, assaulted the enemy and gained a great victory. Reaching Iconium, where plenty reigned, the army was united and a forward march soon ordered. Reaching the small river Seleph, the road becoming blocked, Bar-



**Friedrich Wilhelm I. vor seinen Grenadiern.**  
**FREDERICK WILLIAM I. INSPECTING HIS GRENADIERS.**

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barossa, impatient to cross, attempted to ford the stream. Owing to the heaviness of his mail, he was carried under by the current and drowned. His body was brought to shore by his trusty knights and buried at Antioch, A. D. 1190.

The news of the renowned Emperor's death caused great consternation in the army, and for years it was not believed in Germany.

Said a French writer of that period: "News so deadly piercing, even to the marrow and bone, has wounded me so mortally that all hope and desire of life have passed from me. For I have heard that that immovable pillar of the Empire, Germany's tower of strength and its very foundation, and that morning star which surpassed all other stars in splendor, Frederick the mighty, has ended his life in the East. Thus no longer exists that strong lion whose majestic countenance and powerful arm frightened savage animals from devastation, subjected rebels and made robbers live in peace and order."

A legend still exists, showing the always prevailing hope that the unity of the German people might be again realized under the insignia of the double eagle. It is as follows: The ghost of the Emperor Frederick having passed into his castle, 'Kylfhauser Berg,' in Würtemberg, in a deep cavern there he sits, his arms resting upon a granite table, and sleeps. His yellow beard has grown up through the granite during his long and troubled slumbers. At the end of every century he awakes and asks, "Are the ravens still flying over the mountain?" If answered, "They are, and no eagle has appeared to drive them away," he replies sadly, "Must I then sleep a century more?"

Barbarossa was followed by four emperors of the

Hohenstaufen dynasty; Conrad IV., a youth of seventeen being the last.

"The little church," says Menzel, "to which it was Barbarossa's custom to descend from the castle to hear mass still stands, and over the walled-up door may be read the words, *Hic transibat Cæsar*. Portraits of the Emperor Barbarossa and his wife, Beatrice, may be seen at Welzheim, near the church."

Under this dynasty the order of knighthood reached its highest splendor. The wars with the East had introduced new fashions and brilliant colors. The army had enriched the country with Eastern fabrics brought from the thriving Italian cities, and from the Oriental merchants.

The armies were dressed in woven mail, and resembled "glistening snakes," as the Turks declared.

The principal entertainment furnished the people was the tournament, under the patronage of the nobility and participated in by the chivalrous knights. These public exhibitions were as far elevated above the brutal gladiatorial entertainments of Rome as the humanitarian religion of this young German people was elevated above the diluted religion of Rome's highest civilization.

These orders were founded upon the principle that right only deserved the succor of might. A solemn oath was taken in the presence of a prince or the Emperor not to draw the sword except for a noble cause. Then came the religious orders of knighthood, for the object of warring against the infidels in the East and in their own land. These were known as "The German Order of Knights," "The Brothers of the Sword," etc.

But it cannot be denied that however much the prosperity of the German Empire was enhanced under the

Hohenstaufens, the liberties of the people were more and more limited. The agricultural classes were reduced to a state of simple slavery. All treated them alike; nobility, knights, clergy and tradesmen. The class known as free men, formerly tillers of the soil, had almost disappeared. The only recompense this agricultural class received for the loss of their liberties was the draining of vast tracts of swampy lands in Germany, the introduction of valuable grains and the cultivation of the grape. The inhabitants of the towns and cities were, however, fast gaining in power and influence. They were permitted to regulate their local affairs as pleased them best, being directly responsible to the Emperors themselves. Of course, the old class distinctions still religiously prevailed; there was still the domestic class, the tradesmen and merchant class; these making common cause against the nobles, their prerogatives were considerably curtailed towards the end of the twelfth century.

The cities of Frankfort, Mayence, Cologne, Nuremberg, Augsburg and others were teeming with newly created workshops, filled with artisans. Their merchants were pushing trade to the new East and North. The cities, having been leagued together, in time became the foremost and most wealthy cities in the world, styling themselves "The Hansa Confederation." Great progress was made in agriculture. It was at about this period, A. D. 1248, that the foundation was laid for the magnificent cathedral at Cologne by the Freemasons, and which was finished after William III. had again established a German Empire. This period in Germany's history is also marked by the revival of letters. The songs of the *Niebelungen*, by an unknown author—an epic poem similar to Homer, and from which the world-renowned music-

composer, Wagner, has taken the stories of most of his operas—was written in the twelfth century. The Hohenstaufen princes produced a number of authors classed under the term *minnesingers* (troubadours). Among the many writers of what was called *minnelieder* (love songs) was Von Vogelweide, who sang not only of love but of national glory and the corruption that began to prevail in Church and State, such as the purchase of benefices and the selling of titles of nobility. These early poets began in literature what was finished six centuries after by Goethe, Schiller, Lessing and others. To the student of German history these early Teutons furnished heroes and heroines worthy the task of the most lofty imagination. "It was a period when the practice of chastity and continence bestowed the blessings of health and strength upon the ruling people of Germany, and they had reached a state when loftiness of sentiment was synonymous with the term, 'chivalrous in purpose.'" The reign of the Hohenstaufen dynasty represents the most glorious period of German history during the middle ages.

With the fall of the Hohenstaufens the whole of Burgundy was lost to the German Empire. Naples and Sicily followed, and Lombardy continued only to show the semblance of obedience. However, this loss was compensated for in the annexation of the Prussian territory. These people had been christianized by the "Brothers of the Sword," much in the same compulsory manner as Charlemagne had christianized the Saxons.

These Prussians were a wild, independent people, governed by chiefs and their priests, living principally by the chase and agriculture, and in frequent depredations upon the neighboring country of Poland. Although the "Brothers of the Sword," claimed great credit in the christian-



**König Friedrich II. (der Große).**  
**King Frederic II (the Great).**



izing of these Prussians, the civilizing influence of the traders from the commercial cities in Germany was, probably, the most effective agency in their conversion.

Between 1232 and 1255 A. D., many of the neighboring inhabitants moved into Prussia and became absorbed with the native population.



## CHAPTER IV.

### FROM THE HOHENSTAUFEN TO THE HOHENZOLLERN.

FOR nearly twenty-five years after the death of Conrad IV., the last of the Hohenstaufen dynasty, Germany was in a state of anarchy. The decline of the imperial power, as well as the great growth of the cities, had increased the assumptions to power of the princes and their several grades from the highest dignity down; these were now called the "States of the Empire." These estates were jealously guarding their territory as well as their individual and collective prerogatives. There were the princes, the dukes, the margraves, landgraves, counts, barons, archbishops, bishops, convents and cities, each striving to attain the ideal ancient freedom enjoyed by their German ancestors. Some called themselves "free of the Empire" while others called themselves "free of the great feudal lords."

Constant encounters took place between these small and large estates. Sieges and combats wore the years away, until the belligerents themselves wearied of this state of eternal contention, and determined to terminate it, and also, because Gregory X. had threatened to appoint an Emperor unless speedy action was taken in the matter by themselves. They finally decided upon Rudolph of Hapsburg, A. D. 1273. He was the founder of the present dynasty of Austria.

The uncompromising warfare which had been waged by the Hohenstaufens against the ecclesiastical powers at Rome was not resumed by the Hapsburgs, the elevation to power of Rudolph being aided by the Papal party.

Although possessing but a small strip of territory in Switzerland, upon which stood the Hawkscastle, and a similar estate near the Rhine in Swabia, he was from an old and noble family whose ancestry dated back to the seventh century. Intelligent and courageous, he became an able adviser in the councils of the estates, and an efficient commander in the field. His elevation to the throne was received with demonstrations of joy. Holding aloft a cross, in place of the usual scepter, on the occasion of his coronation, he said: "Under this emblem the whole world has been redeemed; it is the best scepter under which emperors can rule." This sentiment, embodying peace on earth and good will to men, was received by the people with enthusiasm. (The only prince that refused to swear allegiance to the new Emperor was Ottocar, of Bohemia. He raised the standard of revolt, openly proclaiming his intention to establish a separate Slavonic Empire. Ottocar declared war and marched against Rudolph, and was defeated and killed near Vienna, A. D. 1278. Rudolph allowed Ottocar's son to still hold Bohemia, but the Duchy of Austria he presented to his son Albert.) Rudolph never ventured beyond the Alps to secure for the crown Germany's rights and privileges in Italy. Gregory X. came in person to Lausanne to bless him, in order that he should have no excuse for visiting Rome. Rudolph humbly knelt at the pontiff's feet, and promised unconditional obedience. Derided for this act by one of his subjects, he replied:

"Rome is the lion's den, into which all footsteps entering, never return; I therefore prefer to serve rather than fight the lion of the Church."

Rudolph's principal solicitude during his reign was

the promotion of the internal interests of Germany, and the furtherance of the peaceful avocations of the people. With these important reforms in view, he was not, however, neglectful of his own private interests. The lack of territory experienced by his family he felt in duty bound to remedy, and this disposition cost him the most of the troubles of his nineteen years' rule.

Having married his daughters to the Dukes of Bavaria and Saxony, and another daughter to the restored heir of Bohemia, son of Ottocar—excellent matches for the extension of his power—he presented the Duchy of Austria to his eldest son Albert, and to Rudolph the younger the old Hapsburg estates in Switzerland and Swabia. At the age of sixty-six he married Isabelle of Burgundy, a child of fourteen.

He substituted the German language for the Latin in the recording of all official documents of his Empire.

At the refusal of the Frankfort Diet to choose his son Albert his successor, bowed down with disappointment, the old Emperor started for Spire, and died on the way at the age of seventy-three, A. D. 1291. Through the haughty and grasping character of his sons, who were not possessed of their father's politic nature nor inspired by his generous aims for the welfare of the people, the Hapsburg dynasty lost much of its early prestige. /

The electoral princes accordingly set Albert aside, and raised Count Adolphus of Nassau to the imperial throne. Soon discovering that Adolphus was determined to give the people a more liberal government, the princes turned again to Albert, and persuaded him to raise an army against their Emperor. The electors claimed that Adolphus had received a subsidy of a hundred thousand pounds



1777

Elisabeth Christine, Gemahlin Friedrich's II  
ELIZABETH CHRISTINE, WIFE OF FREDERICK THE GREAT.

from England to become its ally against France, but, reconsidering the matter, had failed to carry out the contract or to return the money. He was called before the electors, but ignored their right to try him, when he was deposed. War ensued, when Adolphus was slain by Albert's own lance. Upon Albert's accession he attempted to subjugate a part of Switzerland. Many of the cities and smaller communities had been allowed to retain their ancient local privileges, but Albert claiming authority through imperial power and the possession of Swiss territory, began a series of oppressions, through the aid of his Austrian coadjutors or deputy governors. Of these small autocrats, clothed with quasi-judicial powers and sent to Switzerland, were Beringer von Landenberg and Gessler of Bruneck.

The Hapsburgs claimed the shepherds of Schwyz and Unterwalden as serfs, which the shepherds declared illegal, producing a document signed by former Emperors of Germany in evidence of their freedom. Albert was determined, nevertheless, as Emperor of Germany, to abolish the local differences of privileges and to subject the free communes to imperial rule. His governors proved neither unwilling nor slow in obedience to his commands. As an illustration of some of the persecutions suffered by the Swiss under Albert's governors, the old chronicle of Tschudi has the following: "In the year of our Lord 1307 there dwelt a pious countryman in Unterwald, whose name was Henry of Melchthal; a wise, prudent, honest man, well to do and in good esteem among his country folk; moreover, a firm supporter of the liberties of his country and of its adhesion to the holy Roman Empire, on which account Beringer von Landenberg, the

Governor over the whole of Unterwald, was his enemy. This countryman had some very fine oxen, and on account of some trifling offense committed by his son Arnold, the Governor sent his servant to seize the finest pair by way of punishment, and if the old Henry made any objection to being thus robbed, the servant was to tell him it was the Governor's opinion the peasants should draw the plow themselves. The servant carried out his master's commands. But as he unyoked the oxen the countryman's son Arnold fell into a rage, and, striking the servant's hand with a stick, broke one of his fingers. At this the son fled to the forest, where he concealed himself for a long time. The servant complaining to the Governor, old Henry was seized and his eyes torn out. His son, hearing of his father's wrongs, laid the matter secretly before the trusty people of Uri, who with him awaited an opportunity to avenge old Henry's misfortune."

Gessler, the Governor of Schwyz and Uri, treated the peasantry and citizens with equal cruelty. He erected a strong fortress for refuge in time of danger, and also as a means to keep the people in greater awe and submission. On being asked the name of the fortress, he replied, "Uri's prison." This greatly offended these law-abiding shepherds and peasants. The Governor, perceiving the anger of the people, wickedly determined to humiliate them still further. On St. John's day he caused a pole to be erected in the market place and a hat to be placed on the top. Every man who passed was commanded, on pain of confiscation of his property and corporeal punishment, to bow the head and bend the knee, as if to the King himself. Placing a guard at the base of the pole to report those who refused obedience, the day found no rebels.



On the following Sunday morning, however, an honest peasant of Uri, William Tell by name, *passed several times before the hat upon the pole without paying it due homage.* This was told to the Governor, Gessler, who on the following morning summoned Tell to his presence. It would seem that Tell's insolence had been agreed upon, in order to bring about a collision between the people and their tyrannical Governor. The immediate cause of this resolution was that one day Gessler was riding through the country, when coming to a handsome house, and seeing the owner, Wernherr von Stauffach, standing before the door, who welcomed him in a friendly way, the Governor inquired, "to whom the house belonged?" Von Stauffach suspecting the question boded no good, cautiously replied, "My lord, the house belongs to my sovereign lord, the King, and is your and my fief." At which the Governor replied, "I will not allow peasants to build houses without my consent, or to live in freedom, as if they were their own masters. I will teach you to resist me," and rode away.

These threats greatly disturbed the wise and thrifty Von Stauffach, and, entering his house, he told his wife. With a woman's wit she saw an escape from this no-longer-to-be-suffered bondage. Said she: "The people are complaining of this Governor's tyranny, and if some of you who can trust each other can meet, you may take counsel together how you may throw off this wanton power."

Her husband hurried away to Uri, and finding Walter Furst, who mentioning Arnold, the son of blind Henry, he was called in, and these three agreed to call all the trustworthy people about them together, to take measures for regaining their ancient liberties and expelling the despised Governor

In the Rutli, a lonely valley between high mountains, near the lake of the four cantons, thirty-three patriots met, and swore to make Switzerland free. It is supposed Tell was of this number.

When Tell therefore arrived at the summons of Gessler the Governor haughtily asked him "why he had not bowed his head and bent his knees to the pole with the hat on it?" Tell replied, "My dear lord, it happened unknowingly, and not out of contempt; pardon me; if I were clever, I should not be called Tell. I beg for mercy; it shall not happen again." Tell was a good marksman, and had not his equal in the whole country; he had, also, beautiful children, of whom he was very fond. The Governor sent for them, and said: "Tell, which of your children do you love the best?" Tell answered, "My lord, they are all alike dear to me." Upon this the Governor said: "Well, Tell, you are a good and true marksman, as I hear, and you shall prove your skill in my presence by shooting an apple from off the head of one of your children; but take care that you strike the apple, for should the first shot miss, it shall cost you your life." Tell, filled with horror, begged the Governor on bended knees to dispense with the trial. "He would sooner die than shoot at his own child, etc., etc." Tschudi goes on to tell how the trial was made, and Tell was successful; how he had concealed an arrow for the barbarous Governor in the breast of his shirt in case he had shot his child, for which design Gessler swore he would take Tell to a place where he would never more behold sun or moon. Binding him, the servants took Tell to a boat to cross to Brunnen, when he was to be taken across the country to a castle to pass the rest of his life in a dungeon. While

they were upon the lake a terrible storm arose, whereat Gessler and the servants became much frightened. Said the boatman: "My lord, Tell is a strong man, and can manage a boat well; let us make use of him." The Governor, who was in mortal dread of drowning, said: "If you bring us out of this danger I will release you from your bonds"; to which Tell replied, "I trust, with God's aid, to bring you safely out of peril." Thereupon, Tell was unbound, and, standing at the helm, guided the boat carefully through the waves; but, watching his opportunity, as he approached a great rock he seized his cross-bow lying in the bottom of the boat, jumped out upon the rock, and, with a tremendous push sent the tossing craft back upon the billowy lake. Running to a secret retreat, he there lay in wait for the Governor and his servants. After some delay they came along the hollow way, and Tell, springing from his ambush, drew his cross-bow and shot the Hapsburg Governor through the heart. A chapel stands upon the spot, as well as upon the rock in the lake to commemorate the event. Tschudi further says that the first Swiss Confederation was formed a year after this event, to be in force ten years, with the reservation of their allegiance to the Emperor and Empire.

"There has been a disposition to consider William Tell a myth," says Menzel, "but in 1388 A. D., in the provincial assembly at Uri, a hundred and fourteen people present declared they had known Tell personally, and that he was drowned at Burglen during a flood, while attempting to save the lives of several persons."

Upon the death of Albert, although the crown of Germany was claimed by Philip of France for his brother Charles, the dukes and princes, fearing French domination

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in Germany, refused to elect him, but chose a small count, Henry of Luxemburg. He was a celebrated knight in the tournaments. He was crowned A. D. 1308, as Henry VII., though both the iron crown of Lombardy and the imperial crown of Germany were still in Italy.

Historians say he proved to be one of the noblest Emperors who ever sat upon the throne of Germany.

“Deeply conscious of the duties imposed upon him by his station, he followed in the steps of Charlemagne and Barbarossa, remaining a stranger to the petty policy of his late predecessors, who sacrificed the State for the sake of increasing the wealth and influence of their own houses. Repelling the assumptions of France, and repairing the losses sustained by the Empire since the fall of the Hohenstaufens, he kept aloof from the broils engaged in by his jealous princelings at home. The Italians had become weary of French rule, and the time seemed propitious for again uniting Italy to the German Empire, but he was not supported by the aristocracy of his realm. Said the Emperor sadly: ‘Enemies multiply abroad, when those before whom they were wont to tremble are engaged in dissensions at home, and the bitter feuds between the different races in Germany, will, ere many years elapse, become deeply and ineradicably rooted.’ ”

It is said Henry VII. was poisoned by a monk while receiving the holy sacrament, August 24, A. D. 1313. He was upon the point of being married to Catherine von Hapsburg, who awaited him at Pisa, and, instead of her royal bridegroom, was met by his corpse.

The oligarchical electors now became divided, each supporting an aspirant for the empty throne. The Guelphs and Ghibellines, old enemies for centuries, marshalled

their separate electors, and the contest resulted in placing two kings over the people — Frederick III., a Hapsburger, and Louis of Bavaria, a Luxemburger, both grandsons of Rudolph I. The young men were friends, their childhood having been passed together. Separated by political events, and placed at the head of their respective factions, they were forced to outwardly appear enemies. Privately, however, they bore each other no ill-will. After a hotly-contested battle they were said to have slept together as two cousins. Frederick having been taken prisoner during the battle at Ampfing, A. D. 1322, instead of allowing him to be executed, the King offered to divide the honors and powers of the imperial crown with him at his release. The Pope and electors protested against this arrangement. It was finally settled that Louis should bear the imperial title alone, but Frederick, as German King, should share the administration in Germany. Frederick dying in 1330, Louis became sole ruler. It is said that during the four years of Frederick's imprisonment in the castle Trausnitz, his blonde hair turned gray, and his wife, the daughter of the King of Aragon, wept herself blind. He was called Frederick the Fair.

The authority of the Papal power having declined since the fall of the Hohenstaufens, as the power of the electors had increased, and still more after the removal of the Papal seat from Rome to Avignon, where, it was claimed, the French prelates used its influence for political purposes and to the detriment of German progress, the Emperor offended Pope John XXII. by pushing the Guelphs to the wall whenever the opportunity offered. The Pope having summoned Louis to appear before him, to which the Diet objecting, Louis,

supported by the electors, declared the Pope a heretic, and, starting for Italy, deposed him, and placed Nicholas V. in the pontiff's chair. It is claimed that the crumbling clerical hierarchy would have fallen at that time but for the half-hearted course of Louis. Allowing himself to be intimidated by the Avignon power, the princes finally took up the gauntlet, and in a convocation at Rense, 1338, formed an electoral league and promulgated the declaration, "that every legally elected Emperor of Germany had received his power from God, and was entitled to all its rights and prerogatives, without previous or present recognition from the Catholic Popes." Yet, notwithstanding this bold declaration, Louis had not the strength of character to carry it out. By his deposition of Pope John XXII. the Italians were disaffected, and the King was forced to retire from Italy. This setback affected the future course of Louis.

In 1347, after strengthening his power at home by the addition of Holland, Zealand and Friesland, he thought himself strong enough to undertake another expedition into the Papal dominions, but during the excitement of the chase, near Munich, he died from apoplexy or, as some say, from poison.

The discord that prevailed between the electors, princes and the Emperor, encouraged the Swiss to attempt re-confederation. At the pass of Morgarten, A. D. 1315, an encounter took place between the German forces under Leopold, and the Swiss peasants on foot, who successfully resisted the German "harnessed knights" with halberds, clubs and huge stones rolled from the mountain sides, when they retreated with heavy loss. This encounter furnishes the Swiss of to-day with material for many a patri-

**Abſchied Friedrich's des Großen von ſeinem Vater.**  
**RECONCILIATION OF FREDERICK THE GREAT WITH HIS FATHER**





otic, poetic and self-laudatory song or speech at their gatherings at home and abroad.

A league still existing to further confederation, another battle was fought in 1339, at Laupen, against the neighboring German nobles and won by the Swiss. Eight ancient cities and places now formed a confederation, Luzerne, Zurich, Glarus, Seckingen, Zug, and later Berne was added to the number.

It was during the ten years of Louis' reign, from 1337 to 1347, that those fearful natural visitations fell upon Europe. Comets, swarms of locusts, earthquakes in Cyprus, Greece and Italy, followed each other in quick succession. In Carinthia thirty villages were reduced to mere heaps of ruin by earthquakes, a dreadful pestilence called the "black death" soon after following. It has been estimated that a million of people perished during this pitiless scourge. About this time the University of Heidelberg was founded. Louis was the last Emperor excommunicated by the Popes. His death was the signal for the beginning of active operations by the Franco-Roman party to have a German Emperor of their Church views elected. They succeeded in placing the Margrave of Moravia upon the German throne.

Charles IV. was his title, and he was expected to serve the French against England, "though," says the historian, "he was too prudent a politician and too sensible of his dignity to allow himself to be long enchained to the petty interest of a French king." It was at the battle of Crecy, in which the French were so signally defeated by the English, that the English King, upon hearing of the part taken by the Germans in the battle, exclaimed: "O ye Germans! how could ye die for a French king?"

The sword of the blind Bohemian King bore the inscription *Ich Dien* at this battle—"that is," says Menzel, "God, the ladies, and right"—and was assumed at the time by the English Prince of Wales as his motto, and still remains such. Charles reigned from A. D. 1347 to 1378. The only remarkable act of his reign was the promulgation of the document called the "golden bull," which gave to the seven electorate princes of Mayence, Treves, Cologne, Bohemia, Palatinate, Saxony and Brandenburg the exclusive privilege of electing the Emperor of Germany. This "golden bull" remained in force until the peace of Westphalia, 1648, and almost entirely prevented contests over elections.

Wenzel, the son of Charles IV., was elected as his successor. Germany was passing through internal changes of thought requiring a strong hand at the helm. A fierce war raged between the powerful aristocracy and the inhabitants of the cities. The latter formed leagues called *bunds*. The Rhenish Bund and the Swabian Bund took nearly the same position as the Swiss Confederation had taken, and threatened to become as powerful. But while the Swiss secured their lasting independence at the battle of Sempach, A. D. 1385, the Swabian Bund was completely routed in 1388 A. D. at the battle of Doffingen—called "the war of the cities." Wenzel established judicial districts, called circles, to secure the public peace. Wenzel was too young, and the Germans called him "a fool." Having attempted to interfere in the settlement of some clerical difficulty he excited the ire of some of the electors, who very unceremoniously deposed him and placed Rupert, elector of the Palatinate, upon the throne. Hardly had Rupert been crowned before he declared war

against France, and, to win favor of the cities, abolished the customs or tariffs of the Rhine. This act turned the nobility against him. Wenzel continually waged war against Rupert to regain his rights. Rupert died in 1410 and was succeeded by Sigismond of Hungary. This king's reign, which lasted twenty-seven years, forms one of the saddest and most discreditable pages in German history. The disorganization of the Christian Church, through its persistent assumption and efforts to retain political power, and consequently its neglect of the real spiritual needs of the people, had reached a state appalling to its real defenders.

From Sigismond's coronation dates the period termed by historians "the Period of the Reformation." He was far from being the Emperor of his times. But it is claimed for him that if he had not the energy and power to correct and improve the tendency of the period, he was intelligent enough to see the evils and to suggest a cure. But he was not listened to. He was a great spendthrift, and, consequently, was always in need of money. To provide for his necessities, and to have the means of paying his expenses to Spain—undertaken for the purpose of persuading one of the Popes to abdicate—he sold his whole estate and electorship of Brandenburg, in 1415, to Frederick of Zollern, for 300,000 ducats. The purchaser was an ancestor of the present Emperor of Germany, and from this period the Hohenzollerns became a political power in Prussia. Two events which transpired during the reign of Sigismond have served to tarnish his name throughout the ages, and whatever good he accomplished was outweighed and lost sight of in the bigoted and barbarous execution, A. D. 1415-'16 of the two worthy and learned men, John Huss and Hieronymus of Prague.

Many demands for a reformation of the Church practices had come from Northwestern and Western Europe. The most powerful impulse to the movement, as in the early days of Winfried, had come from England. John Wickliffe, a professor of theology at the University of Oxford, had by his writings caused intense interest in Germany and Bohemia. Two professors at the University of Prague, John Huss and Hieronymus, became enthusiastic advocates of his teachings, and were active in their propagation. Their course roused the indignation of the ecclesiastical party. Huss went so far as to accuse the clergy, as well as the Popes—of which, at this time, there were no less than three—of gross immoralities. Having refused to appear before Pope John XXIII. at Rome, to answer to the charge of scandalizing the heads of the Church, he was excommunicated A. D. 1413. A council was called at Constance, at which the notable princes and nobles of Germany and the most powerful Catholic prelates from all parts of the world assembled, ostensibly to settle the legal right of one of the three Popes to the pontifical chair in Rome, but in reality to determine the rights and discipline of the Church.

As Huss did not recognize the authority of the Pope, John XXIII., he was cited to appear before the Council, Sigismond having promised him safe conduct. On the way Huss had given free expression to his doctrines, and upon his arrival had preached an offensive sermon, for which he was immediately imprisoned in a narrow dungeon in the Concilium building, upon the Lake of Constance, near which the sewers of the town emptied. Other matters for a time occupying the attention of the Council, and Huss being attacked with fever, he was removed to the

**friedrich der Große nach der Schlacht von Kollin.**  
**FREDERICK THE GREAT AFTER THE BATTLE OF KOLLIN**



Castle of Gottlieben by command of the Bishop of Constance, and chained hand and foot to the wall of his dungeon (these chains are still to be seen at Constance). Here he remained for nine months, or while the Council settled the Papal affairs of Germany and the rest of the world, after which he was called before it. As Huss entered the assembly room, it is affirmed, a solar eclipse darkened the earth. Addressing the Emperor who presided, seated upon a throne, he thanked him for his safe conduct, upon hearing which Sigismond's face turned scarlet with shame. Huss then attempted to explain his doctrine, but the Council would not listen to him. The articles of accusation, says history, were then read to Huss and he was ordered to recant.

He was charged with having maintained the existence of four gods, at which Huss smiled unconsciously. Other charges were, that he had promulgated doctrines condemned as heretical by the Church, such as "that laymen as well as priests might partake of the Lord's Supper; that a priest unworthy of his office could not dispense the sacrament; that the Holy Ghost rested upon the whole congregation; that every pious laymen was fitted, without being ordained, to act as spiritual teacher and guide; that the authority of the Bishop of Rome did not extend over foreign nations, and that, lastly, obedience was as little due to a wicked prince as to a wicked Pope."

Repeated addresses were sent from Bohemia to the Council, in behalf of their *protégé*, but their demands were unheeded. Deprived of his priestly office by the Council, a high paper cap, upon which were printed three devils with the inscription, "The Arch-Heretic," was placed upon Huss' head. Huss made no objection, simply observing,

"Christ wore a crown of thorns." A procession was formed and Huss was taken to an open space in the suburbs of Constance. Bound to the stake, and seeing a peasant heaping up wood near him, Huss cried out, "O zealous simplicity." The wood being kindled, the martyr's voice was heard singing hymns until the flames deprived him of his courageous breath. It is claimed that he predicted Luther's advent by saying, "To-day you will roast a goose (meaning himself), but a hundred years hence a swan will appear that you will not be able to destroy." Hieronymus, who had come to Constance to aid his friend, fled in despair, but was captured, thrown into prison, and, through hunger, torture and sickness, was induced to recant. But this act only hastened his condemnation. The following year, A. D. 1416, he shared the fate of his co-worker and sufferer, John Huss.

History says, that owing to the choice of the church for holding the Council, Constance was ruined. The murders of these two men lay like a curse upon the beautiful city, which never flourished after. The hopes of the Christian world in the work of the Council were thus doomed to disappointment. True, an Italian cardinal, as Martin V., was raised to the Papacy, putting an end to the anomaly of three Popes issuing decrees to the Church at the same time, but a religious war was the ultimate result, engendered between the adherents of Huss and their opponents, which war lasted from 1419 to 1435. The Hussites were led by John Zizka, who had been Chamberlain and favorite of the Emperor Wenzel; but becoming enraged against the priesthood, he took up the cause of the anti-Catholic party against the King. Their insignia was a cup, which originated from the casting to the ground by a cardinal-



legate, the cup held by a Huss preacher as he was about to celebrate the Lord's Supper. It was at this time the churches and monasteries, as well as royal palaces, of Germany and Bohemia, were edifices of unequaled splendor and of which but a faint idea can be formed at the present day. Upon the garden walls of the royal residence at Prague, destroyed during this war, was written the whole Bible.

After the death of Pope Martin V., his successor tried every means to bring the war to a terminus. The Maid of Orleans, who had helped drive the English out of France and was revered as a saint, was induced to write a letter to the Hussites, admonishing them of the crime of warring longer against the holy ordinances of the Church. To which letter they replied: "You well know what separates us from you; you preach with your mouths, we practice it in our acts."

Sigismond died A. D. 1437, and was succeeded by his son-in-law, Albert II. Like his Hapsburg predecessors he was a faithful adherent to the policy of the Church, which policy had permitted one hundred and ten heretics to be burnt at Vienna, and thirteen hundred Jews for having aided the Hussites. Albert died two years after his coronation.

Frederick III. succeeded him, also a Hapsburger. That he was a slow man may be believed, as it took him eleven weeks to decide whether he would take the crown or not. He, having decided in the affirmative, was after permitted to reign fifty-two years.

During his long rule and almost undisturbed peace Germany developed her internal resources. The arts, industry and society improved; the federative system was

begun ; that is, a union of the greater and lesser estates of the Empire was brought about — that of the ecclesiastical orders with those of knighthood and of the citizens in the provincial Diets ; the union of the government of the electorates and duchies, by the new method of judicature, and, lastly, by the corporative system in the cities.

Frederick's Chancellor, Casper Schlick, who had also served in the same capacity with Sigismond and Albert II., was a doctor ; "a man who reached fame far beyond his merit," says Menzel ; "who never understood the spirit of his times, nor the duty of the crown, but solely occupied himself in veiling the deficiencies of his three masters, and deferring by plausible negotiations decisions of the great questions that agitated the age. Thus, by his diplomacy were the people deceived, and the great lesson taught by the Hussite war of no benefit, to them." Frederick III. was the last of the German Emperors who were crowned in Rome. While this Emperor lived an uneventful life, a simple subject of his, a German mechanic, studied night and day to perfect an invention which has done more towards bringing about the humane age in which we live than all the emperors, kings, popes, presidents or dignitaries that ever dwelt upon the earth. His name was Johann Gansfleisch or, as he took his mother's name, Gutenberg of Mayence, and his machine, the primitive printing press, was given to the world A. D. 1450. In 1493, Maximilian, the son of Frederick III., and known as the "Last Knight," quietly ascended the throne. He was thirty-four years old, and a man of great acquirements for the age in which he lived. Inheriting the strength of his Polish ancestry and the mental qualities



Friedrich der Große am Morgen nach der Schlacht von Torgau.  
FREDERICK THE GREAT AFTER THE BATTLE OF TORGAU.

of his Portuguese mother, Eleonora, he was chivalric, modest, gentle and amiable. It is said of him that when he went to the Netherlands to marry Mary of Burgundy, "he appeared at Ghent, mounted on a brown steed, clothed in silver-gilt armor, his long blonde locks crowned with a bridegroom's wreath resplendent with pearls and precious stones, and rode into the city, where he was met by his prospective bride. The youthful pair, upon beholding each other, knelt in the public streets and sank into each other's arms. 'Welcome art thou to me, thou noble German,' said the young Duchess, 'whom I have so long desired, and now behold with delight.'" They were married A. D. 1478. After the birth of her two children, Philip and Margaret, afterwards married to the children of Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain, the patrons of Columbus, the beautiful bride, while hunting was thrown from her horse and fatally injured. She died in the bloom of youth A. D. 1482.

Maximilian I. reigned twenty-seven years. This period may fitly be termed, the transition period from the decline of feudalism to the age of human progress. It was eminently a revolutionary period in the minds of men. "On neither side was contentment to be found," says the historian Kohlbausch. The old accepted privileges of the Emperor and the States had become more than ever undefined. The princes often resorted to open war in order to extend or defend their territory and titles. Whatever the Emperor had intended to accomplish, he was prevented from doing by want of means. The greater portion of the revenue formerly allowed to the Crown had been appropriated by the States. Maximilian finally succeeded in inducing them to demand of every person of

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the Empire one penny out of every thousand he possessed, or a tenth per cent., towards the maintenance of the Crown. This tax was seldom regularly paid. The Emperor attempted to establish a post to facilitate communication throughout his realm, but the project failed, on account of want of means and the state of the roads. The federation of every class made representation in the Diet now possible. The dukes no longer ruled the whole assembly. A distinct court of justice was established, but, says history, "however excellent ideas he possessed, or however honest of purpose were the Emperor's efforts, all was alike unavailing against the torrent of opposing interest."

Says Menzel: "Maximilian I. intended well. He fervently desired to march against the Turks; to reānnex Italy to the German Empire, to chastise France, but he was a prisoner in the midst of the weapons of Germany and a beggar in the midst of her wealth."

He wrote a book of anecdotes, receipts, etc., and left a biography, the life of an adventurous Knight rather than that of an Emperor.

Before the close of his reign, the troubles of the Reformation began. The seed planted by Wycliffe in England, by Huss and Hieronymus in Germany, had sprung up and borne plentiful fruit. Respect for the ecclesiastical hierarchy had nearly vanished. The old German universities had been the bitterest enemies of Huss, and a new school had been founded by his followers, independent of the universities, at Deventer. These students under the name of the "Brethren of Common Life," were allowed to study the dead languages, and finally came to be known as the "Humanists." The study of Hebrew, however, excited the suspicion of the Papal powers, and one

of its advocates, who insisted the Bible should be read in the Hebrew language, was imprisoned for life. Pope Leo X., who was a pure man, who became cardinal at the age of thirteen and Pope at thirty-seven, was a patron of art. He was blamed, however, for draining Germany of most of its revenue to build the gigantic church of St. Peter's. After the crusades, instead of going to Jerusalem, pilgrimages were made to Rome, and whoever laid an offering on St. Peter's shrine was to receive remission for his sins. These offerings were to be sent every Jubilee, and were found to be so productive they came to be held every twenty-five years. Millions were poured into the Papal treasury. As all could not go to Rome, the means of purchasing absolution was offered by a paper currency, with the price of every sin fixed, and this currency was offered for sale throughout Christendom. This indulgence was termed "The Roman Pardon." The worship of the Virgin Mary had become almost as important as that of God or the Savior at this time.

The Emperors, suffering for money, became restive at the immense sums raised by the sale of indulgences, and in 1500 A. D. it was declared, in an imperial decree, that two-thirds of this amount should be retained for the defense of the government against feared attacks from the Turks. Nothing came of it however. About this time two men of great learning, Erasmus and Melancthon, the latter a zealous "Humanist," appeared as preachers advocating a reformation in the Church; but although it came to be an age of learning, the common people were far removed from its influence, and the scholars, liberal-minded as they were, had not the power or wanted the courage to teach them openly and freely. In all ages

men have arisen however, ready and fitted for the performance of the duty demanded of them. This man of courage and ability was Martin Luther, the son of a poor miner of Saxony (those Saxons were a wonderful people, always found opposing tyranny of every sort). He became a monk and a professor of theology at the new Humanist University at Wittenberg in 1512. His first public action was inspired at the shameless conduct of a retailer of indulgences in Saxony. He published his work, "German Theology," in 1516, a work, says the historian, written in the simple severe style of the best mystics; he attacked the follies and depravity of the age, not with satire and irony (the weapons used by former preachers), but with the earnest gravity of a monk, a stranger to the world. In 1517, he brought out in the church of Wittenberg, ninety-five arguments against indulgences, the principal of which were: that, by sincere repentance and penance alone, not by the payment of money, could sins be remitted; that the Pope, being merely the vicerent of God upon earth, could only remit the external penances ordained by the Church on earth, not the eternal punishment awarded to the sinner after death.

This utterance would have fallen dead upon the Christian world at large but for Gutenberg's printing press. Europe was inundated with copies of these Lutheran declarations in less than a month.

Maximilian's son Philip dying in 1506, after his own death, Frederick of Saxony was proclaimed regent until Philip's son, Charles V., should become of age. This Emperor's boast was "that the sun never set on his dominions." His possessions were Germany, the whole of Spain, Naples and the late Spanish conquests in America.



Charles left Spain for Germany A. D. 1521. The princes and representatives of all the estates of the Empire flocked to Worms to receive the new Emperor. A Diet was convoked, ostensibly to regulate the affairs of the Empire, but in reality to decide the Lutheran controversy.

The German princes were pleased with the courtly bearing of their Spanish-born Hapsburger, and seeing the necessity of maintaining peace and the unity of the estates against the designs of Francis I. of France, appeared indifferent to Luther's schism, and Luther was curtly ordered to appear before the Diet and retract his heresies. On his arrival two thousand people escorted him to his lodgings. His demeanor, as he confronted this imposing assembly, was that of a man secure in his position. In vindication of his offense, he spoke at length in German, which the Emperor requested him to repeat in Latin. He declared he could not recant in such emphatic language, that four hundred of the German nobility were ready to defend him at all hazards. Luther was put under the ban; that is, he was divested of the right to preach, and the people were forbidden all intercourse with him, or to perform any office of humanity for his support or comfort. It is said the young Emperor bitterly lamented after, that he had not made a similar end of Luther that had been made of Huss and Hieronymus.

On his way home from Worms Luther was seized, presumably by his consent, and carried to Wartburg castle, where, confined by his friend and patron, Frederick of Saxony, he translated the Bible into German. While he was lost to the world, Melancthon, Von Hutton, Erasmus and Zwingli carried on his work. England's king, Henry

VIII., carried Luther's doctrine to its legitimate end by throwing off the Papal yoke. Charles V. in 1521 raised his old tutor, Adrian of Utrecht, to the pontifical throne. This excellent old man projected a comprehensive reform, but, before his work was accomplished, he expired. His successor, Clement VII., said: "The separation of the North was far less perilous than a general reformation; that it was much better to lose a part than a whole." No sooner, however, had the reformers made decided progress in their crusade against the mother Church, than they began to wrangle among themselves. Some enthusiasts went so far as to declare that most of the doctrines held by the Church were mere delusions, calculated to dwarf the intellect and keep the people in a state of perpetual serfdom. Luther remained conservative, and it was said of him by the more progressive reformers, "that, though he had led the people through the Red Sea, he had deserted them in the wilderness."

While the teachings of Luther were expected to have a far-reaching and beneficent influence upon the mass of mankind, in allowing more freedom of religious thought, their immediate effect upon the ignorant and down-trodden peasantry was to rekindle the hope for greater political freedom. This sentiment was seized upon by fanatical preachers—adventurous knights—who at the prospect of a war added every species of fuel to the already smoldering fire.

The peasantry revolted, and, joined by several cities under the leadership of Thomas Munzer and others, presented their grievances to Archduke Ferdinand, the brother of Charles V., who had been made ruler over Germany during the Emperor's absence in Spain. The twelve

demands made by the peasantry are good evidence of their acquaintance with the fundamental rights of man as expounded at a later period, to-wit:

“The right of the peasantry to appoint their own preachers, who were to be allowed to preach the word of God from the Bible; that the dues paid by the peasantry were to be abolished with the exception of tithes for the maintenance of the clergy, the surplus to be applied to alleviating the sufferings of the poor; the abolition of vassalage as iniquitous; the right of hunting, fishing and fowling; that of cutting wood in the forests; the modification of socage and average service; that the servant be guaranteed protection from the caprice of his lord; the modification of the rent upon feudal lands, by which a part of the profit would be secured to the occupant; the administration of justice, according to the ancient laws, not according to the new statutes and to caprice; the restoration of communal property illegally seized; the abolition of taxes on the death of the serf, by which the widows and orphans were deprived of their right, and the acceptance of the aforesaid articles, or their refutation, as contrary to the Scriptures.”

They wished Luther to become one of the arbitrators; but he refused, some say, because the peasants had become Anabaptists. They accused him “of having deserted the cause of liberty and of rendering the Reformation a fresh advantage for the Princes, or a new means of tyranny.” Numbers of the nobility were forced bodily to join the peasants’ rebellion. Many scenes of bloodshed followed; barbarous executions and terrible hardships fill many pages of the history of this contest

As might have been expected, led by fanatics and free-

booter knights, such as Goetz von Berlichingen, Metzler and Jeyer, the revolting peasants were subdued, after which fearful reprisals were taken by their conquerors. John of Leyden and two others, after being publicly exhibited in several German cities, as a spectacle, were tortured with burning pincers, and put to death by piercing their hearts with a red-hot dagger. Their bodies were placed in iron cages and hung from the steeple of a church in Münster. The state of the survivors was now more melancholy than before, as Charles V. and his brother were looking more towards the extension of the Hapsburg possessions than to the internal affairs of Germany. Bohemia and Hungary having been added to the Empire by the marriage of Ferdinand with the sister of Louis of Bohemia, Francis I. of France now claimed the attention of the Emperor, which absence rather aided the Reformation in Germany than otherwise.

In 1543 Charles set out for Italy, where he brought the whole country under subjection through the valor of his Spanish soldiers. The next year he collected an army of 30,000 Germans, and marched into France. When within two days' march of Paris Francis made proposals of peace, which were gladly accepted by Charles, and signed, A. D. 1544, at Carpi. Burgundy remained with France, but Francis pledged himself to support Charles, not only in checking the Turks, but in restoring the unity of faith, as the anxiety felt by the Emperor and the Catholics lest the Protestants should acquire superiority throughout the Empire was not without foundation. The electors in many instances were declaring themselves decidedly in favor of the new cause. Universities were also adding their learning and strength to Luther's cause.

Parade vor Friedrich dem Großen in Potsdam im Jahre 1779  
FREDERICK THE GREAT ENTERING POTSDAM IN 1779.



One of these electors, Hermann of Cologne, wished to introduce into his bishopric important reforms and invited Melancthon to aid him. The corporation of Cologne and other Catholics in power were opposed to the adoption of these doctrines, and appealed to the Emperor and the Pope to use their authority in the case. To make a long story short, the Emperor felt himself called upon to employ as a last argument against the innovations demanded by the converted electors the force of arms. Charles represented to the Pope that, unless he joined him in active coöperation against the Protestants, he could do nothing, as he himself had not the means, and the Catholic princes of his realm were without energy. Prompt support being promised, the alliance was completed, and Charles, to be at peace with the outside world, concluded a treaty with Francis I. of France.

Says Kohlbausch: "A critical period had now arrived in the Emperor's life. In forming the resolution to accomplish with the sword that which he had so long endeavored to effect by peaceful means, he fell into a great error, falsely imagining that the mighty agitations of the mind could be checked and held in chains by external power. From that moment, on the contrary, he was himself vanquished by that very overwhelming epoch, the course of which until then he had appeared to direct and hold in check."

The Smalcald League—the articles of confederation having been drawn up by Luther, the principal members of this league being the Prince Elector of Saxony, the Landgrave Philip of Hesse, the Dukes of Bavaria and others—were all the strongest opponents of Charles and his allies. A battle was fought at Muhlberg, A. D. 1547, in which the

Emperor gained the victory, and took away the territory of the Elector of Saxony, giving it to Duke Maurice. This ungrateful noble, offended at Charles' preference for Spanish statesmen, such as Alva and others, thought himself called upon to defend the German princes, and, with several of these, formed an alliance with the French king, now Henry II., against Charles.

This army suddenly marched against the Emperor in the spring of 1552. They hastened through Germany, and, after taking the castle of Ehrenberg, reached Innsbrück but a few hours after Charles had left; he, being sick with the gout, had been hurried across the Alps on a litter. After this victory the truce of Passau was negotiated, under which fighting was to be suspended and religious toleration promised to the Protestants. This was assured by the Diet of 1555, at Augsburg. It was also agreed to permit princes and barons to promote the Reformation in their own territories, that subjects who would not accept the religion of their lords must be allowed to emigrate. Church estates were not to be secularized; ecclesiastical princes were required to tolerate the Protestant worship; and if a prelate should adopt the Reformed faith he must give up his clerical dignities. This appeared a gain altogether for the Protestants.

Finding that much of his great Empire was slipping from his grasp, Lorraine being annexed to France, Charles became discouraged. He was doubtful as to the outcome of the great religious controversy that had progressed slowly but surely in his eastern empire since the execution of John Huss. At the Augsburg Council Charles announced his intention of resigning the kingdoms of Spain, the Indies,



Naples, and the Netherlands to his son Philip, who had but recently married Mary of England. The project, although combated by the Catholic party, was adhered to by Charles, who, sending for Philip, transferred to him at Brussels, in the same hall in which he, forty years before, had been declared of age, all his possessions except Germany. Addressing the princes and nobles, who were all deeply affected, the Emperor said "that since his seventeenth year his whole thought had been to promote the glory of the Empire; that he had always been anxious to be personally present in all his undertakings, that he might be an eye-witness of their progress and results, for which reason his entire reign had been almost one uninterrupted scene of pilgrimage and traveling; that he had been nine times to Germany, six to Spain, four to France, seven to Italy, ten to the Netherlands, twice to England, twice to Africa, and finally that he had made eleven voyages by sea; that now, however, his sinking body warned him to withdraw from the tumult and vexation of temporal affairs, and to transfer the burden of all these cares to younger shoulders," and much more of serious import; after which, he turned to his son Philip, who had fallen upon his knees and now kissed his father's hand, and earnestly exhorted him to use every effort in his power to render his reign a glorious one.

His brother Ferdinand was formally acknowledged Emperor of Germany by the Electors, and Charles V. alone gladly entered a monastery of Spain, A. D. 1556, where, two years after, he died at the comparatively youthful age of fifty-six. This act has ever since caused the world to wonder. A powerful monarch, a successful general, a man of marvelous executive ability, at the treachery of

adherents, to resign all his earthly splendor in order to pass his remaining days in utter seclusion, is a mystery human intelligence has found difficult to solve.

About ten years before Charles' death Luther had died at Eisleben, at the age of fifty-three. They were men of one period and worthy combatants. Both died unsatisfied with their work—the Emperor, doubtless, because he had done too much against the Reformation; Luther, because he had not done enough for it.

Of the Emperor it is said: "His private life, for the most powerful monarch of the age, was decent and orderly. He was inferior to no general of his times; was the first to arm when a battle was fought, and the last to take off his harness; was calm in great reverses; indefatigable in the discharge of business, and, if it had been possible that half a world could be administered as if the property of a private individual, the task might have been accomplished by Charles V. On the other hand, Luther had striven to direct the minds of the people towards those things in life which tend to the growth of character. He had always striven for peace, 'a condition with which the people were hardly acquainted at that period in history.' "

To use Luther's own graphic language, he was himself "rough, boisterous, stormy, and altogether warlike; born to fight innumerable devils and monsters, to remove stumps and stones, to cut down thistles and thorns, and to clear the wild woods." Dissimulation and cowardice were unknown to him. He was a most faithful representation and original type of the German national character. Eminently a man of the people, there is no other name to-day that is so revered and loved as Luther's; more, even, than Winfred (Boniface) is he considered the apostle of German Christianity.

118

Friedrich der Große und Voltaire.  
FREDERICK THE GREAT AND VOLTAIRE

Says Carlyle: "The basis of Luther's life was sadness, earnestness. In his latter days, after all his triumphs and victories, he expresses himself heartily weary of living; he considers that God alone can and will regulate the course things are taking, and that perhaps the day of judgment is not far off. As for him, he longs for one thing; that God would release him from his labor and let him depart and be at rest. They understand little of the man who cite this in discredit of him. I will call this Luther a true, great man; great in intellect, in courage, affection, and in integrity; one of the most lovable and precious men; a right spiritual hero and prophet; once more a true son of nature and fact, for whom these centuries, and many that are to come yet, will be thankful to heaven."

At the close of Luther's life Germany was on the eve of one of the most destructive civil wars that ever visited any country known in modern or ancient history. "The time had come," says a great writer, "when the Germans were to render their most important service to mankind. The great Reformation found its origin and support in the character of the German race. From the beginning these people were distinguished by their preference of substance to form; of reality to show; of the inward and spiritual as opposed to appearances and display. They were from the earliest times the most independent and individual of men; passionate in their love of freedom; Protestants by nature in Church and State; resolute in upholding the right of private judgment and personal liberty. 'Tis true these characteristics kept the German Empire from becoming a strong national power; but they, also, saved the German mind

from religious enslavement and made Germany the battlefield of the Reformation."

Having already shown that even the emperors of Germany were dependent upon a swarm of independent powers, authorizing their electors to act for them, it will be seen that doctrines or beliefs embraced by individual feudal lords, cities or leagues, were not to be gauged by an edict or a council met together to formulate dogmatical articles of faith.

Accordingly the Council of Trent, held at intervals for eighteen years for the purpose of coming to some understanding as to the course to be pursued to strengthen the Mother Church, and, if possible, to regain the princes and electors who had deserted her for the heresies of Luther, Erasmus, Melancthon and others proved of little avail in healing the breach in Germany. The cause of its ill-success for the Protestants, says one historian, "was the mixture of foreigners presiding at these councils, whose knowledge of our nation was little or nothing, but whose influence, from the commencement of our history, in all external as well as internal affairs, always deprived us of peace."

The Council closed in 1563, and Ferdinand I. died in 1564. He was praised as an excellent monarch by both parties, Catholics, as well as Protestants.

Ferdinand's eldest son, Maximilian II., was chosen by the Electors as his successor. Said his father in praise of him, at an assembly of the princes of the realm, "endowed with considerable intellectual powers, great address, mildness, and goodness of heart, he is likewise gifted with all the other princely virtues and good morals; possessing a disposition open to all that is truly just,

good, and honorable, together with a sincere love for the holy empire of the German nation, the glory and prosperity of which it would be his honest desire to promote; that he was master of the six languages usually spoken in Christendom, and was consequently enabled to regulate in person all transactions with foreign powers." The widely circulated expression of Maximilian's, that "God alone could hold dominion over the conscience," caused the Protestant electors to trust in him. Bohemia, the radical Reformation ground in Germany, was well satisfied with Maximilian's elevation.

Until about this time (1565), there had been no serious outbreak against the Reformation; but after the Council and the doctrines of the Church had been sharply and clearly defined, the breach became widened between Catholicism and the two branches of the reformers,—Lutherans and Anabaptists. The inquisition was again set in motion throughout Southern Europe. The "Society of Jesus," founded by the Spaniard, Loyola, was devoted solely now to resisting the spread of the Reformation. "By founding schools, endowing chairs in the universities and skillfully occupying the confessionals of princes," says Lewis, "they soon acquired enormous influence among all classes." The conflict was no longer for the power of individual States, but for the religious and political enslavement of all the people of Europe. But the eighteen thousand terrible deaths inflicted by the Inquisition failed to lessen the enthusiasm of the reformers. William of Orange, the son of a German prince, declared the Netherlands independent of the Spanish crown in 1581. Queen Elizabeth of England undertook the work of protecting the freedom of Europe from Catholic supremacy;

but France, under Charles IX., Maximilian's son-in-law, had attempted to annihilate the Protestants (Huguenots) at one blow by the massacre of St. Bartholomew's day. Maximilian II., upon hearing of this unnatural horror, said: "Would to God, that my daughter's husband had taken my advice."

Under Maximilian, who was known to be favorable to the Reformation, most of his Austrian subjects adopted the Augsburg Confession, Vienna becoming almost entirely Lutheran. After reigning eight years he was succeeded by his son, Rudolph II., who had been educated by the Spanish Jesuits, and accordingly the policy of Spain and the government of Germany were now one and the same, to-wit: to war against Protestantism. Rudolph paid no respect to his father's guarantee of religious freedom in his own territory, and revolts soon followed. The Princes called together a council and deposed Rudolph, "because his Imperial Majesty had at various times betrayed his incapacity of mind."

Placing his brother Matthias over Austria, Hungary and Moravia, they allowed Rudolph to retain Bohemia. But the Protestants of Bohemia now forced Rudolph to grant them, by letters patent, the full privileges of their several ranks, and, in particular, the freedom of religious worship. Rudolph, dying in 1612, of a broken heart at his brother Matthias' treatment of him, Matthias, now as supreme ruler, attempted to carry water upon both shoulders, metaphorically speaking. The Protestants, however, were not united against the Papal party. The Lutherans were opposed to Calvinism. It was not a congenial religion for the gay nature of the Germans. It savored too much of gloom and revenge. At this time,



owing to a half century of comparative peace, "Germany was richly peopled, well cultivated, and appeared to be at the summit of her prosperity."

The cause of the terrible war which followed, history attributes to the course of "two young princes, cousins of the Emperor, educated together in the school of the Jesuits, who burned with zeal to restore the old Church to its original power, and to destroy the heresy of Luther throughout the land." They were the Duke of Bavaria, Maximilian, and Ferdinand of Styria. Bavaria had remained largely Catholic. The Protestants of Donauwerth having broken up a monastery procession, the Emperor pronounced a ban upon the city and gave the Duke orders for its execution. Capturing the city, he held it as security for the cost of the siege, and restored with the sword the worship of the Catholic religion. This caused the Protestants of South Germany to form a union for self-protection. This union expected help from France. To counteract this party the Catholics formed a league, most of them prelates. They expected help from the Emperor and Spain. Thus stood the state of the religious controversy about the year of Matthias' elevation to supreme power. The contest, so far, had resulted in the ascendancy of the Mother Church. The direct incident which is regarded as the beginning of hostilities, and which resulted in the "Thirty Years' Religious War of Germany," is told in history somewhat as follows: The Abbot of Braunau closed an evangelical church, then building; the Archbishop of Prague caused another to be torn down. The Protestant nobles regarded these acts as violations of the letters patent granted by Rudolph II., and complained to Matthias. Being angry, he threatened

them as disturbers of the peace. They believed his decision was prompted by the report of two of the ten councilors he had left to govern Bohemia, during a royal journey through his empire. At a council called by the Protestants at Prague, soon after, after a prolonged and bitter dispute with the two suspected councilors, a mob gathered and threw the traitors out of the window, "according to the Bohemian custom," it is claimed.

Although the distance was eighty feet, the two men were but little hurt, and this was regarded as a miracle, the Catholics declaring they had been upborne by angels' wings.

The whole of Bohemia was now in arms. Matthias, sick with dropsy, tried to have Ferdinand, his heir, seek a reconciliation, but it was claimed the Jesuits defeated every effort for peace.

Matthias died in 1619, while both parties were preparing for the terrible struggle. Ferdinand II. succeeded his father, all the electors, both Catholic and Protestant, voting for him except the elector of the Palatinate. While the crowning festivities were at their height, the news came that the Protestants of Bohemia, Moravia and Silesia were opposed to Ferdinand. They preferred the young Protestant elector of Palatine, Frederick, whose wife was the daughter of James I. of England. Frederick went to Bohemia, and upon proclaiming religious liberty, the altars and images of the cathedral were destroyed by some zealots and the church fitted up as a Calvinistic place of worship. As much in earnest as were the Lutherans, they could not tolerate such sacrilegious behavior by Calvinists. Therefore, although offered aid by the French, and by German princes, the Bohemians, at the approach

of the imperial army (divided among themselves) retreated under the walls of the city of Prague. Led by the Duke of Bavaria, a decisive battle was fought at White Hill, Prague, November, 1620, and the Protestant Bohemians utterly defeated. The Duke withdrew the letters patent, closed the Protestant churches, and drove the people to mass. In six months, twenty-seven nobles were executed in the market-place of Prague. Thousands left their homes, destitute. All the institutions of learning were taken in charge by the Jesuits. It is believed that, during these wars of persecution, the population of Bohemia, which in the beginning numbered about four millions, was reduced to less than eight hundred thousand. A state of uncompromising warfare against Protestantism being now established by the Emperor and Papal party, the people accepted it and went to work. From the battle at White Hill (1620)—the day of the landing of the Pilgrims in America—until the Peace of Westphalia in 1648, there was not a foot of territory that could one day be safely said to belong to this or that prince, this or that country, this or that religious party.

Says the historian: "The nobles themselves grew barbarous in the wild work of war, in which they were in no degree behind the common soldiers; or else were tamed and humbled, their spirits broken by continued misery and privations. The defiant spirit of their ancestors was gone. A nobleman's estate brought him now little revenue. The peasant had lost his means of support; the citizen his business and enterprise. In short, the German life at the end of the contest looked like death. The imperial unity of the nation was gone, and German history might have ended here but for the two great elements of

life which had survived throughout their national distress; the spirit of the Reformation and the inborn constructive vigor always shown in communities inheriting a share of the old Saxon blood." These characteristics had been preserved in an eminent degree among the people living east of the Elbe and called Prussians. Although wars had devastated these marshes, and their great Elector, Frederick William, had espoused the Protestant cause, this region had not suffered so much as Southern Germany. The Elector had built up his power out of the wreck of the Empire, and in a short time Brandenburg became the center of the great political and intellectual revival of Germany. It is not the object of this brief historical sketch of the reigning families of Germany, to follow the fortunes of the Hapsburg dynasty to the end of its supremacy in Germany proper, A. D. 1806, but only to touch upon the reigns most necessary to make clear the conditions of the Hohenzollern supremacy in the German Empire of to-day.

## CHAPTER V.

### THE HOHENZOLLERN DYNASTY.

**T**HE earliest ancestor of this royal family of Germany dates back to Count Thassilo, who lived about the year 800. Not much is known of his descendants until about A. D. 1236, when the family was divided into two branches, the Franks and Swabians, the former becoming the ruling family. It is not important to follow the careers of these petty princes and their successors up to the year 1415, when Sigismond, the Emperor of Germany, at the date of Huss' execution, sold the estate of Brandenburg to Frederick and conferred upon him the title of elector of Brandenburg.

The real founder of the Brandenburg Prussian family, however, was Frederick William, the great Elector, who was born A. D. 1620. He succeeded his father, George William, the tenth Elector, when but twenty years of age. He was brought up under the overwhelming shadow of the terrible Thirty Years' Civil War. In truth, he was just thirty years old when the peace of Westphalia was signed, returning to him his lost provinces and constituting him sovereign of his own domain. With that unconquerable energy, possessed in a remarkable degree by the Hohenzollern family, the Elector immediately dismissed his father's Chancellor, Adam von Schwarzenberg, a Catholic, who had kept his father first upon one side and then upon the other of the belligerents, on account of which vacillating policy the territory of Brandenburg had unnecessarily suffered.

1620  
30  
1650?

(1648)?  
cf. p. 185\*

As is generally claimed, when a man reaches an exalted position, the Elector's mother had much to do in shaping his mind and character. He spent several years at the University of Leyden, devoting himself to the studies required to be mastered by princes of those days.

Having had his first military experience at the siege of Breda, which his uncle, Frederick Henry of Orange, had invested, he had an opportunity to become acquainted with the distinguished soldiers and statesmen then collected at the Netherlands. This active school had much to do in directing his future course. Thereafter he thought and acted for himself. After the peace he directed his attention to the organization of a standing army. In a comparatively short time he had 25,000 troops disciplined according to the Swedish military system. In 1655 he formed an alliance with Charles X. of Sweden, and took the city of Warsaw in Poland. This secured the independence of the Duchy of Prussia, which had been feudatory to Poland.

In 1673, the Elector formed an alliance with the Emperor Leopold I., the States of Denmark, Hesse-Cassel and other German cities, to hold in check Louis XIV., who had seized a line of the frontier towns. Through the treachery of the Emperor the Elector was defeated, and forced to give up Wesel and Rees. Two years later the Swedes, marching into Brandenburg as allies of Louis XIV., were met and completely routed. Pursuing the flying army into Pomerania, the Elector reduced a great portion of this province, which he released again to Sweden upon the payment of three hundred thousand crowns. He now directed his attention entirely to the building up of his government and to the welfare of his people.

In 1685 he issued the celebrated edict of Potsdam, which edict followed in the same month Louis XIV.'s edict of Nantes. Edicts were not generally issued by mere Electors at that time, and, accordingly, Frederick William's edict was considered something out of the usual course. Mme. de Maintenon having succeeded in inducing Louis XIV. to assent to the revocation of the instrument which guaranteed to the Huguenots religious liberty, the fate of Protestantism in France was sealed. Persecutions followed, and those who could not be forced to abjure their religious belief, and who were able to evade the guards on the frontier, sought refuge in other lands. Some went to England, some to Holland, some to Switzerland, some came to the United States, and a great many went to Germany. Frederick William, himself a Protestant, saw that the very best element of the French agricultural and industrial population would in time seek ways of bettering their condition. He was anxious to re-populate his devastated estates with this element, and sent repeated invitations for them to come and make his principality their home. A large number accepted the invitation as early as 1661, but it was not until the revocation of the edict of Nantes, twenty-four years after, that the immigration assumed important proportions. The far-seeing Elector, believing that now thousands would seek refuge in other lands, and desiring to encourage the stream to flow in his direction, formally issued the famous edict of Potsdam, in which he promised religious freedom and a safe asylum throughout his dominion. He also promised assistance and free transportation. These inducements had the effect of bringing over more than twenty thousand French Protestants into the Northern part of Germany. In fact, the Elector was so anxious thus

to increase his population that he used much of his personal means, declaring "that he would sell his plate rather than that these Huguenots should lack succor." It is stated by the historian Weiss that this immigration into Prussia consisted of soldiers, manufacturers and laborers. All received assistance in money, employment and privileges. This hospitality of the wise Elector proved a great blessing to the future of Prussia, while the Huguenots, in their turn, contributed in a proportion very superior to their number to the greatness of their adopted country. History has justified the remark of Frederick the Great in his letter to the Duke d'Alembert: "Allow me to differ with you," he writes, "in regard to the revocation of the edict of Nantes. I am under obligations to Louis XIV. for it, and would be thankful to his nephew if he would do the same thing." This great Elector, whose principle it was to let every man travel his own way toward a future state of happiness, characteristically expressed in these few words the significance of the edict of Potsdam.

This is but one of the many opportunities he availed himself of to add to the prosperity of his people and estate. The "Great Elector" died at Potsdam A. D. 1688. He was succeeded by his son Frederick, the eleventh Elector of Brandenburg. The manner in which the son reached a throne and became Frederick I., King of Prussia, shows him to have been a man of unusual diplomatic ability. The Austria Hapsburgs still claimed suzerainty over the whole of Germany. Frederick's territory, after some purchases from spendthrift Electors, and an inheritance of the counties of Linden and Mörs from William III. of England, whom the Brandenburg troops escorted to Whitehall, included a little more than forty-five thousand square



miles, a principality not quite so large as the State of New York. Europe was agitated by two great wars; that of the North, between Peter the Great and his allies, Augustus II. of Poland and the King of Denmark, and Charles XII. of Sweeden; that of the South, the "War of the Spanish Succession." The Hapsburgs were anxious for an alliance with the powerful Elector of Prussia, whose land did not belong to the Empire. Says the historian Lewis: "To pretend to royalty in his German possessions was impossible for Frederick as long as the form of the Empire continued to exist." The shrewd Prince Eugene significantly said of the situation at the time: "The minister that would advise Leopold II., Emperor of Germany, to recognize the Prussian throne ought to be hanged." At Vienna, however, great advantage was expected from such acknowledgment. Aware of this feeling, Frederick had himself and wife crowned King and Queen of Prussia, on January 18, 1701. Said Frederick the Great, in writing of this step: "In effect, my grandfather declared to his successors, by this act, 'I have attained a title for you; show yourselves worthy of it. I have laid the foundation of your greatness; you must finish the work.'" This new King endeavored to imitate the Court of Louis XIV. of France. He laid out Berlin upon a grand scale; built an arsenal, a royal palace in Berlin and another at Charlottenburg, which was named for his wife, Sophie Charlotte of Hanover. He founded the University of Halle, built asylums for orphans, academies of science and medical colleges, to further education. He carried out his father's policy in protecting religious freedom and strengthening the military arm of his power.

Unlike his predecessor Electors of Brandenburg, he was

not an economizing ruler, and at his death, A. D. 1713, the finances of his kingdom were found to be much the reverse of prosperous.

His son and successor, Frederick William I., however, followed in the footsteps of his thriving Hohenzollern ancestors. He was averse to everything French in the administration of his kingdom. In every department he practiced the most rigid economy. He endeavored, with the narrow views of the age, to wall his people in. He prohibited their wearing cloth not woven at home, setting the example with his own family. He established an informal evening gathering of his friends and advisers, where each smoked to his heart's content; these meetings became famous as the "Tobacco Parliament." He was a furious-tempered man. He seemed at times wholly devoted to his "blue children"—a name he gave to his army. The quaint character of the instructor in tactics and discipline of the army, "Old Dessauer," has furnished many a German author with the ideal type of a martinet. Frederick William is best known to the public, however, as the Prussian King who had a monomania for stalwart soldiers. Wherever a giant was found throughout the wide world he was forced or hired to join Frederick William of Prussia's "Royal Guard of Grenadiers"; and if a giantess was discovered she was forthwith approached and persuaded to marry her equal in size out of the Guards, in order that the race of powerful soldiers might go on increasing to the King's great joy.

Frederick William's wife was Sophia Dorothea, a Hanoverian, and sister to George II. of England. She bore the King ten children, the eldest of this ancient number being Frederick, afterwards known as "Frederick the Great."

During Frederick William I.'s reign of twenty-seven years, he engaged in but two wars; the first against Charles XII. of Sweden, the other in the settlement of the Polish Succession. Before setting out for one of these wars, it is said he turned to his privy council and exclaimed wittily: "As I am a man, and may therefore die of a shot, I command you to take good care of Fritz (Frederick the Great); and I give all of you my wife to begin with. My curse, if you do not bury me at Potsdam in the church there, without feasting and without ceremony."

He left his son six millions in the treasury, and an army of seventy-two thousand well equipped and disciplined men. He died A. D. 1740.

About 1700 A. D., or at the beginning of Frederick William's reign, Germany had reached the extreme point of disintegration. There was no more Empire but numberless small states, in all three hundred and fourteen, and fourteen hundred and seventy-five small territories. Each of these districts was practically independent, and "it was only in the use of a common language, and in the production and enjoyment of a common literature, that the Germans preserved, in any sense, the semblance of national or race unity." Some authors claim that the spirit of freedom was almost extinct at this time among the Germans. To the contrary, the people had more individual liberty; less war gave them more time for studious thought and individual progress. In this century began the greatest period of intellectual activity before or since known in Germany.

Frederick II. of Prussia ascended the throne A. D. 1740, at the age of twenty-eight. The biographer of the great Montesquieu, in speaking of that statesman's travels

in foreign lands, said: "Montesquieu did not go to Germany because then Frederick the Great had not reigned." It may in truth be said that the early Germans had their Arminius, the Goths their Theodorick, the Merovingians their Clovis, the Carlovingians their Charlemagne, the Franconians their Henry IV., the Hohenstaufens their Frederick Barbarossa, the Hapsburgs their Charles V., and the Hohenzollerns their *Frederick the Great*.

This prince in his youth showed none of the warlike characteristics which had distinguished the lives of his three preceding ancestors. He was of modest and retiring disposition, with a marked tendency towards scholastic pursuits. Placed under the instruction of French professors, "he never had a mother tongue," says Macaulay, "owing to which deficiency the world lost one of its best authors." Having been forbidden by his father to study the ancient languages, and consequently unfamiliar with the writings of the Greeks and Romans, he found in the caustic, critical and intelligent works of Voltaire his highest gratification. Ruled during his time by a despotic father, in his youth the unhappy prince attempted to escape to England, and seek the protection of his uncle, the King of England; but being caught, he was taken to the fortress of Kustrin, where he was forced to witness the shooting of his youthful friend, Lieutenant Katt, who had aided him in his flight. It has been affirmed, but with little show of authenticity, that but for the interference of the principal sovereigns of Europe, Frederick himself would have been shot as a deserter. His eminently military father was, no doubt, disappointed at the effeminate and erratic fancies of Prussia's future king. Persecution seemed, therefore, the father's duty. That his determination to

**Die Tafelrunde in Sanssouci.**  
**SOCIAL GATHERING AT BANS-SOUCI.**



make Frederick a soldier is clear from the celebrated message he had conveyed to him, to-wit: "That if he would renounce his claim to the throne, he could study, travel, or do whatever he pleased." To this stern proposition, the prince returned the characteristic reply: "I will accept my father's ultimatum, in case he will declare I am no longer his son."

This, it seems, his father was not prepared to do.

Those, however, who had believed the prince a dreamer before his elevation to the throne, were made to see their mistake soon after his father's death. The rise of Prussia to a first-class power required an extension of her domains. The same year, believing himself called upon to show his mettle, and believing himself also fully competent to undertake the task of carrying out the designs of his ancestors, Frederick set his splendid army in motion toward Silesia, a province of Austria. Through the "Pragmatic Sanction," Maria Theresa had ascended the throne of Austria. This appeared to Frederick a favorable moment to renew an old claim the Hohenzollerns had to the Duchies of Glogau and Segan, as well as the greater part of Silesia. The claim being rejected, Frederick soon succeeded in taking several outlying districts of Silesia. But the following spring the Austrian Field-Marshal Neuperg, who had been sent against Frederick, came very near bringing the adventurous expedition of the young King, as well as his martial career, to an inglorious end.

In the spring of 1741, the Prussian general, the Prince of Dessau, captured the fortress of Glogau, and a month later, the main bodies of the Prussian and Austrian armies met at Molwitz. The battle raged hotly all the afternoon.

Toward nightfall, the right wing of the Prussians being thrown into confusion and several batteries captured, Frederick became demoralized, not taking his baptism of blood with the usual Hohenzollern *aplomb*. With a few followers, leaving the army in charge of Field-Marshal Schwerin, the young King galloped to the rear, hoping to find safe refuge in the small town of Oppeln, which he supposed to be still occupied by a detachment of Prussians. But the place had been taken, and the first information received to that effect by the flying King, was a sudden explosion of musketry at his approach. Narrowly escaping being taken prisoner, he hurried away to the village of Loewen, where he anxiously awaited news of the fate of his army.

On the following day, he was made happy with the information that General Schwerin, followed by the Austrian field-marshal, had been able by an unobserved movement, to throw his main force upon the enemy's flank, and, by a well-sustained fire of infantry and artillery, to throw the Austrian forces into confusion. Following up his success with his cavalry, Schwerin achieved a complete victory.

This fortunate turn in his affairs gave the impetus to Frederick's future brilliant career. The eyes of Europe were at once turned upon the young King. If ever the saying "that success is the test of merit" had an application, it was in this instance. Had not Field-Marshal Schwerin thus promptly and gallantly turned the tide of battle, or, had he been influenced by the demoralization of his King, the world would never have heard of *Frederick the Great*, but, taking advantage of his discomfiture, would have handed him down to posterity as *Frederick the Coward*.



The momentous consequences of a Prussian defeat on this occasion seem to have been realized by Field-Marshal Schwerin. The battle gave to Frederick temporarily the province of Silesia, but it was the signal for a general European war, which is known in history as "The Austrian War of Succession." Both France and Bavaria became the allies of Austria—a friendliness which had not existed for three hundred years between the former—and Austria was thus revived. Frederick having gained a second victory over the Austrians in the spring of 1742, at Chotusitz, Maria Theresa concluded a treaty of peace with him by which Silesia and the county of Geatz were definitely ceded to Prussia. This peace was obtained by Maria Theresa in order to secure the vote of Frederick towards securing for her husband, Francis of Lorraine, the election of Emperor of Germany.

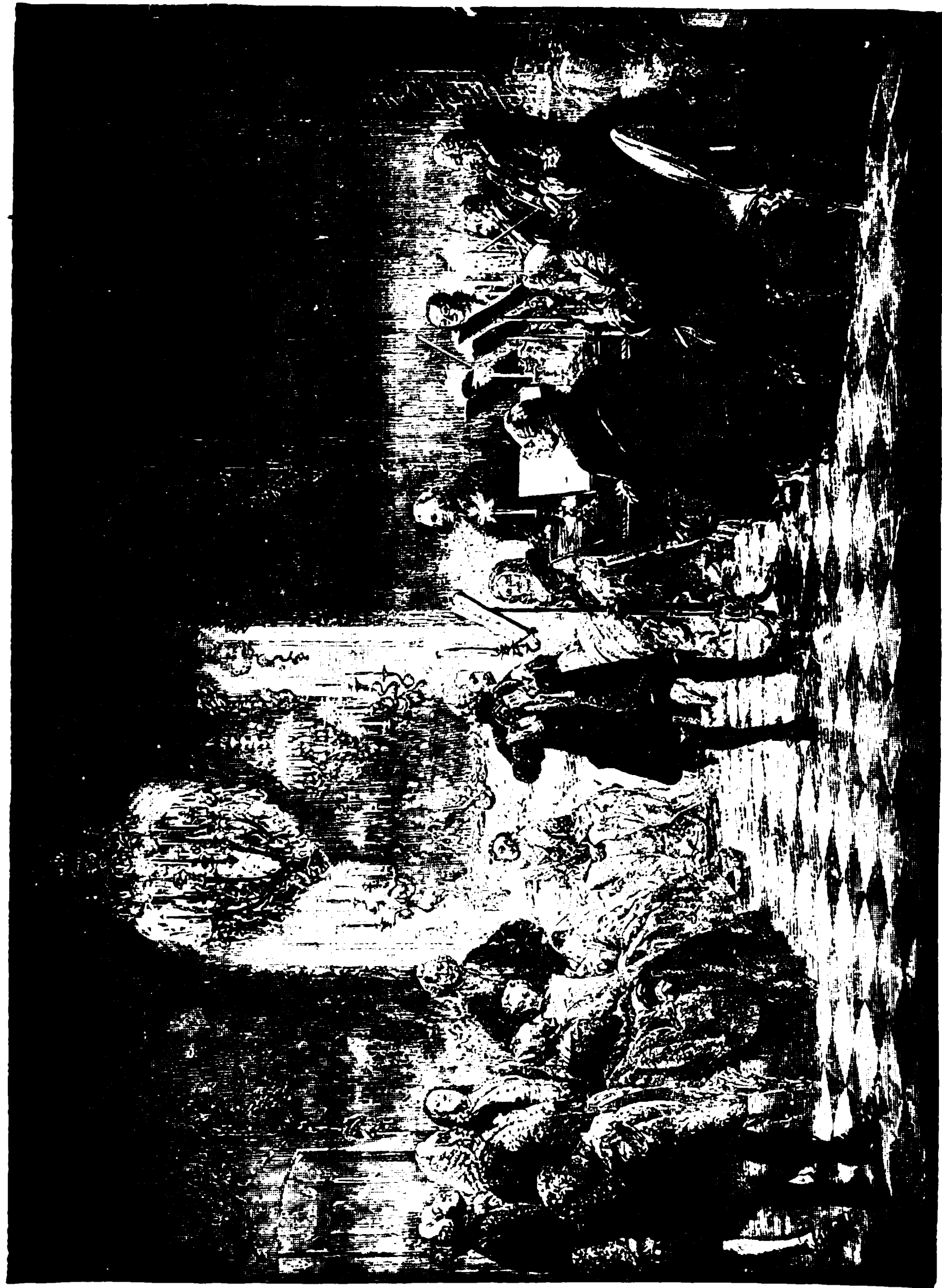
Availing himself of the few years peace that followed to reorganize and strengthen his army, Frederick, in 1744, becoming uneasy at the repeated victories of the Austrians over the French and Bavarians, at the head of thirty thousand men, marched into Bohemia and took Prague. The Duke of Lorraine meeting him, other battles were fought, the Prussians always victorious. But Frederick now retreated into Silesia, when Maria Theresa, thinking this an opportune moment to repossess herself of Silesia, sent troops into the country and seized several fortresses. Frederick, at this activity of the Empress, made a sudden attack upon the Duke of Lorraine (Maria Theresa's pet general and a brother-in-law) and defeated him at Hohenfriedberg. Silesia was quickly evacuated by the Austrians. The Duke, however, returned the next year with forty thousand men, while Frederick could oppose him with but

eighteen thousand. After a hard-contested battle the Prussians gained the victory. The same year Frederick defeated the united forces of the Austrians and Saxons, who were preparing to advance upon Berlin, by entering the capital of Saxony with his triumphant army. Silesia was again ceded to him. By this time Prussia had assumed imposing proportions; her population had doubled, and Frederick now seemed to hold the destinies of Germany in his hand.

During the peace which followed, lasting eleven years, Frederick advanced in many ways. Keeping a steady eye upon the efficiency of his army, he lost no opportunity to develop a love of learning, the sciences and arts, and to foster manufactures and agriculture among the people. His great and worthy aims were to inaugurate a thorough system of popular education, the abrogation of obsolete and inhuman laws, and the enactment of others more in harmony with the progressive spirit of the age. It was during this period that he wrote his "*Memoirs pour Servir L'Histoire de Brandeburg*," and a poem, "*L'Art de Guerre*."

But while devoting his energies to the advancement of his subjects, a conspiracy was started on foot between the ruling princes of Saxony and Bavaria, the Empress of Austria and Elizabeth of Russia—Peter the Great's granddaughter—the Kings of France and Sweden, to dismember the Prussian kingdom and divide the spoils among themselves. Frederick, with a population of about five million souls, was about to be attacked by a combination of sovereigns ruling over more than one hundred millions of people. But the humiliating phase of the situation was that three of the principal German States were conspiring





Flötenkonzert Friedrich's des Großen in Sanssouci  
FREDERICK THE GREAT PLAYING THE FLUTE.

with foreign potentates — among them the hereditary foe of Germany, France — for the destruction of the fourth and most thoroughly German kingdom of them all. But it was only an exhibition of the German characteristics, envy and jealousy, upon a large scale. The Crown-Prince of Russia, Peter III., however, proved himself a friend in need, and gave Frederick timely warning that the attack was to be made the following spring. Thereupon the Prussian King resolved to strike the first blow. Securing an alliance with England he hurriedly entered Saxony, September 30, 1756, with an army of seventy thousand men, seized the state paper in Dresden containing the full stipulations of the conspiracy and published it to the world. This had the effect of bringing public opinion to his side, with missives of warm and immediate sympathy. The first encounter at Lowositz, in October of the same year, inaugurated Frederick's "Seven Years' War." Saxony's army surrendered a little later on, reducing the country to a quasi-Prussian province.

This unexpected and favorable turn Frederick had made, had the effect of spurring on the allied powers to more energetic measures. Austria sent forward all her available troops. Russia furnished a hundred thousand men, Sweden, France, and the German smaller states rushed forward large armies, until not less than half a million of men were under marching orders, determined to annihilate Prussia's King and divide Prussia. Frederick's only hope of escape was by prompt and decisive action. To meet them by detachments and dispatch them by sections was soon decided upon.

Dividing his army into four grand divisions, he plunged into Bohemia, captured the enemies' supplies, and on the

6th of May his united forces reached Prague. During the battle which followed the brave, old Field-Marshal Schwerin again saved the day, but at the sacrifice of his own noble life. The victory was complete, the Austrians fleeing in all directions.

Frederick's hold upon Bohemia, however, only lasted six weeks at this time, for in a second battle at Kollin the following June, he was defeated and forced to evacuate the country, and Saxony as well. In the meantime the French had invaded Prussian territory, and the Russians and Swedes were marching upon Berlin. Frederick decided to attack the French army first. Coming upon them at Rossbach, he defeated the French general-in-chief, Count Clermont, taking seven thousand prisoners. The English being much pleased at this success, forthwith furnished Frederick with more money and men. Turning now upon the Austrians, who were already in possession of Berlin, Schweidnitz and Breslau, with but thirty thousand men, he attacked an army of eighty thousand, killed and captured twenty-seven thousand prisoners, took one hundred and thirty guns, fifty standards, and four thousand wagons, etc. The following year he recaptured Schweidnitz, and with thirty-seven thousand troops defeated sixty thousand Russians at Zorndorf. This was the bitterest and bloodiest battle of the whole war. The cruel depredations by the Russian Cossacks and barbarous Calmucks had so exasperated Frederick that he issued an order before the battle begun to give "no quarter." Consequently the slaughter was almost unparalleled. The Russians having had enough of Frederick's skill and determination for a season, returned from Prussian territory. Frederick was now at liberty to pay his undivided

attention to Saxony. But, as in peace and war, few men are blessed with perennial success, the King now met with a series of reverses. On October 14, 1758, he was surprised and beaten at Hoch-Kirch; but reuniting his forces he retook Dresden from the Austrians; the year 1759 also opened unfavorably for the Prussians. The Russians again appeared at the frontier with overwhelming numbers, and defeated the Prussians near the Oder and nearly annihilated them. Dresden fell into the hands of the enemy with twelve thousand Prussian troops. Berlin was again taken by the Russians, and the greater part of Saxony had been lost by the battle of Torgon in 1760. Frederick's cause now seemed hopeless. But for the patriotism and devotion of his people, and the courage and ardor of his army, he would hardly have continued the struggle longer. But, like a tiger at bay, in this dire emergency, the Empress Elizabeth of Russia, happily for Frederick, was called hence. Peter III., his steadfast friend, upon ascending the Russian throne, forthwith withdrew from the coalition. The Prussians now turned to Austria, and throwing a force into Silesia, Frederick defeated them at Burkersdorf and at Freiberg. The last ally of the Austrians, the French, now withdrew, leaving this power to cope with Prussia single handed. At this juncture in her affairs, Maria Theresa thought it wise to make peace with Frederick upon as favorable terms as possible. The treaty was signed February, 1763, and Prussia was left in sole possession of Silesia. Thus ended a struggle which stands single of its kind in the annals of war. For eight years Frederick had been absent from his capital, and the reception given him by a grateful people on his return, can well be imagined.

And yet, after this great expenditure of men and money, historians say Prussia did not owe a dollar, but, sad to relate, its population had diminished by one-tenth. For the remaining twenty-three years of Frederick's reign, he devoted himself to the recuperation of his people's interests. He practiced the most rigid economy in the government as well as his individual expenses. It is said, for twenty-three years, he ordered but one fine suit of clothes. He worked twenty hours out of the twenty-four. Perfect order reigned throughout Prussia; property was secure, and speech and the press were free. Being lampooned one day, a friend brought the fact to his notice. "Oh!" said Frederick, "my people and I understand each other; they *say* what they like, and I *do* what I like. This was the secret of his government; he did what he liked, and as he only liked to do what was the best for his subjects, his government was eminently successful. His ideas of his responsibility in the stewardship of the affairs of the throne of Prussia, are sound, and appear original for that day. Said he, "We kings are merely the stewards appointed for the administration of the general fund; and if, as such, we were to apply to our own personal expenditure more than is reasonably necessary, we should, by such proceeding, not only bring down upon ourselves severe condemnation, in the first place, for extravagance, but likewise for having fraudulently taken possession of that which was confided to our charge for the public weal."

There is no doubt but that the literary turn of Frederick's mind was the result of the great intellectual awakening which was beginning to be felt throughout France and Germany. The French authors, many of them belonging



to the school of the "Economists," were poets, philosophers and statesmen, represented by such men as Montesquieu, Racine, Voltaire and Rousseau. The rising German authors, but of a different school, were Lessing, Klopstock and Goethe, and were soon followed by Kant, Fichte, Jacobi and Schiller. Frederick the Great, having been much impressed with the writings of Montesquieu in his youth, and, later, with Voltaire's works, during a visit down the Rhine, he invited the author, who was at Brussels, to pay him a visit. Voltaire accepted, and in 1750 took up his residence at the palace in Potsdam. Frederick the Great held an exalted opinion of the French philosopher's genius, and the two men had a very pleasant time together as long as the King extolled the author's verses with indiscriminate praise, but the time came when Frederick seemed to enjoy teasing rather than praising Voltaire. The writer Muëhler is authority for the following incident, which goes far to show some of the reasons why the two former friends parted in coldness, which coldness in after years increased to bitter hatred.

"Upon one occasion," says he, "an Englishman appeared at the Prussian Court, possessed of so extraordinary a memory that, after a hundred pages of any work had been read to him, he declared he could forthwith repeat the whole, word for word. Frederick was much impressed with this gift of memory, and putting it to test one evening, found by the result a confirmation of the man's claim. Just as he was upon the point of dismissing the Englishman, Voltaire sent to inquire if His Majesty had half an hour's leisure in which to listen to a poem he had just completed? Frederick, struck with the *apropos* inquiry, felt very much inclined to play a joke upon Vol-

taire, and sent an affirmative reply. He now requested the Englishman to secret himself behind a screen, with the adjuration to treasure up every word he should hear. The great poet entered and read through the whole of his verses with great declamation and evident self-satisfaction. The King listened with coolness, and then said: 'Why, I must candidly confess, my dear Voltaire, that it looks to me as though you were claiming for your *own* what belongs to *others*. I have noticed this more than once before.'

"Voltaire's indignation at being thought a plagiarist, gave to his countenance an expression—always a subject for caricaturists—of extreme harshness and bitterness. He was mortally offended, and assured the King he had been misled by a treacherous memory, and was acting with great injustice toward him. The King replied, indifferently: 'But, if I prove to you that your verses are already known by a stranger at my court, what then?' "All that your Majesty may bring forward, all assurances are to me mere empty words, for I can disprove all and everything!" replied Voltaire, warmly.

"Upon this the King ordered the Englishman to be introduced from the next room. Thereupon he was commanded to recite the verses, and without a moment's hesitation gave Voltaire's poem *verbatim et literatim*. Half mad with astonishment and rage, the poet rose from his seat, exclaiming, "Heaven! destroy with thy thunderbolt this robber of my verses! What magic is this which is being conjured up to drive me to desperation?" and rushed from the King's presence in a towering passion. Frederick, however, enjoyed Voltaire's mystification immensely."

The dinners of Frederick the Great were the occasions of his day, *pour faire rire*, and for unrestrained satire,

discussion and repartee. Surrounded by genial spirits called the "illuminati," the festivities of the table were often carried far into the night. The King also had organized an orchestra at whose concerts he himself often performed an air upon the flute. A characteristic anecdote is told of his skill in playing this instrument, as well as his keen enjoyment of quaint surroundings and unusual situations.

"In the course of a journey once made to Holland, quite *incognito*, he arrived at a small tavern in Amsterdam and gave himself out as a musician. The town being celebrated for a certain rich cake, the King thought he would like to taste one, and ordered his aide-de-camp to procure it of the landlady. The Colonel obeyed, but the landlady, measuring the messenger from top to toe, and a little suspicious of her plainly dressed guests, exclaimed: 'Oh, yes, it is all very well for you to order a cake, but pray, sir, can you pay for it after it is made? Do you not know that such a cake as you order will cost more than seven guilders?'

"To this the Colonel, much amused, replied, that the gentleman with whom he traveled was very rich; that he played the flute so beautifully, whenever he performed in public a considerable sum was collected in a very short time. 'Indeed!' cried the landlady, 'if that be so, then I must hear him immediately.' Saying which, she hurried on to the King's chamber, and entering without ceremony, courtesied, and said: 'I understand, sir, you play a tune very well on the flute; oblige me by warbling something for me to hear.' At first Frederick did not comprehend the situation, but was soon informed by the Colonel in French, upon which he seized his flute from the table and

played with so much spirit and in such a masterly style that the landlady was carried away with enthusiasm, and exclaimed: 'Excellent! excellent! you do, indeed, play sweetly, and I dare say, you earn many a guilder; at any rate, you shall have your cake,' and hurried away to fulfill her promise."

+ A recent work published in Germany, entitled "Frederick the Great's Influence on German Literature," by Professor Suphan, has many interesting facts concerning the writings left by Frederick II. In speaking of the rise of letters in Germany, he says, in substance:

The last half of the eighteenth century in Germany must be designated as the era of Frederick the Great and Goethe. For the first time in the literary history of two thousand years we have a great literary epoch for which the name of the greatest contemporary ruler is an inadequate description. The names of Augustus, Charlemagne, Elizabeth, Louis XIV., call up each a complete notion of the period in which they lived, and of the production, artistic, literary, political, industrial, and economical, that went on about them. The name of Frederick the Great, however, associates itself only with an age of martial heroism and brilliant victory; of vigorous economic administration, the establishment of Prussian prestige, and the deepening of the national self-respect. His name does not suggest that the years of his famous successes were also the years when German literature was ripening to maturity, and the first fruits had already fallen. Goethe!— and all the productions in the fields of art, poetry, philosophy and science through a half century of earnest effort and brilliant achievement, are recalled in association with that name. The sum of the last half of the preceding

**Friedrich der Große in seinem Arbeitszimmer**  
**FREDERICK THE GREAT IN HIS LIBRARY**





century amounts to Frederick the Great and Goethe. Lessing, with all his admiration for the Prussian King, denies him every claim to thanks at the hands of German literature, but adds: "I should not be willing to swear that a flatterer may not one day come who will think well of calling the present era of German literature the era of Frederick the Great."

In 1766 the poet Herder wrote a dissertation upon German literature, in which the views and aims expressed in 1780 by Frederick the Great essentially coincide. Though the one seeks his standards of taste in England and the other in France, both are conscious of the feebleness of German literature; both are striving towards a fundamental bettering of its condition; both recognize that to this end the language must first be perfected; both insist upon a study of the classics and demand careful translations, not imitations; both see the day of attainment coming; both think it still afar off; but both are laboring unrelentingly in earnest towards the same goal. Frederick prophesies the time "when the German language, polished and perfected, will be taught in the schools of France and the fame of its literature be spread from one end of Europe to the other. "The days are not yet come, but they are nearing. I announce them to you; they will appear; I shall not see them; my age forbids me to hope it. I am like Moses. I see the promised land in the distance, but I shall not enter it." He was already across the Jordan, and knew it not.

Frederick is constructive, and takes hold of his subject with a firm, practical grasp. He seeks the way to improvement, and looks confidently into the future, with prophetic visions that have been most brilliantly realized.

He lays great weight upon the study of the ancient languages and literature; points out the necessity of good translations in lieu of feeble imitations. The importance of purifying and perfecting the German language is especially emphasized. In consequence of the numerous and deeply-rooted dialects in Germany, the establishment of an academy to the decisions of which absolute submission be required seemed unavoidably demanded.

To Frederick the impossibility of a national literature in an imperfect tongue was clear. His suggestions for rendering the language euphonious, to point out the way, excite discussion, and rouse the talent and learning of the land to earnest efforts in rendering possible and eventually creating a German national literature, worthy of a place among the greatest of the world, were of incalculable value to writers that followed him.

But the relation of Frederick the Great to German literature was of a far more intimate nature than his writings or his direct efforts in its behalf would indicate. Patronage and direct encouragement was not Frederick's affair. It was Voltaire who enjoyed the hospitality of the Prussian Court, and what of German literary talent gathered there was obliged to lay aside native barbarism and become French. But Frederick's influence was more effective and far-reaching than patronage and protection; it lay in the inspiration furnished by a great personality at the head of affairs. The sound of vigorous martial preparation in Berlin, armaments and marching troops, was the signal that the new period had come. Rossbach was won, the French power checked, Europe astonished, every pulse was quickened. Through seven years the career of the hero was watched with increasing wonder,



enthusiasm and hope. Of a sudden the man was there who gave energy to a century that had slept. The time had "contents" all at once; the spirit was roused, the imagination kindled, the national consciousness deepened. Every period of great literary production has been one of thrilling activity, in which the strength, greatness and heroism of the people have found expression. This element of inspiration, national pride and consciousness of power, was furnished Germany by the *life* of Frederick the Great. "He gave German poetry life and substance (*lebensinhalt*)," says Goethe in his Autobiography. Being without an heir, he having never lived with the wife provided him by his father, Frederick felt some apprehension for the welfare of his kingdom after his death. One of his last public acts, therefore, was to effect an alliance, or form a league, as a check against Austrian aggression. The estates joining were, Prussia, Saxony, Hanover, the Dukes of Brunswick, Mecklenburg, and Deux-Ponts, the Landgraves of Hesse, the Elector of Mentz, and several other princes. This league proved of no advantage to Germany, as, after Frederick's death, the princes, dukes, etc., returned to their hereditary territorial claims.

Frederick the Great died on the 17th of August, 1786, at the age of seventy-four, just before the breaking out of the French Revolution. He was buried under the pulpit of the Garrison Church at Potsdam. He was called a Free Thinker, but he proved to be a Great Thinker, and a Greater Sovereign. Admiring Washington, he sent his sword to the first President of the Republic with this message: "From the oldest general in the world to the greatest."

Through Frederick the Great's careful and paternal management of Prussian affairs, he was enabled to leave in the treasury, at his death, a surplus of fifty million dollars, an army of two hundred and twenty thousand men, a territory of ninety-five thousand square miles, and an intelligent, industrious population of six million souls.

Frederick William II., the nephew of Frederick the Great, was crowned King of Prussia in 1786. After his selection as Frederick's heir, he was treated by his uncle somewhat austere, exposed to all the privations and dangers of the "Seven Years' War," and most strictly disciplined in all the duties of his expected office. It is said this prince, during the peaceful years of his uncle's reign, enjoyed little of life; but, if what is told is half true of him, he made ample amends for it afterwards. No act of great importance marked his rule, except the troops he furnished to aid in the restoration of the Protestant party in the Netherlands, his coalition with Austria against France, which, however, did not redound greatly to the military glory of Prussia, and his participation in the second and third dismemberment of unfortunate Poland, but he finished and adopted the code of laws prepared by Frederick the Great. Dying in 1797, he was succeeded by his son, Frederick William III., father of the late Emperor of Germany. As the lives of father and son are inextricably interwoven, for further historical information of the reign of Frederick William III. the reader is referred to the first chapter of the following biography of Emperor William I. of Germany.



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King George VI  
 & Queen Elizabeth II

## CHAPTER VI.

### PRINCE WILLIAM -- HIS BIRTH AND YOUTH.

THE realization of Frederick the Great's fond dream, that at no distant day the German-speaking people in the heart of Europe would be peaceably united under Hohenzollern sway, seemed never more remote than on the 22d day of March, 1797, the date of the birth of Emperor William. Brought upon the stage of action at the age of twenty-seven, and at a period of general uneasiness throughout Europe, Frederick William III. (the Emperor's father) in one respect found himself prepared for his elevation. His early acquired love of order, discipline, economy and industry were qualities of which the King of Prussia in 1797, stood much in need. He set about immediately to reform the Court of his father, abrogated his unpopular edicts against the freedom of the press and religious instruction, and began his reign in an earnest and exemplary manner. His marriage, at the age of twenty-three, to the most beautiful and accomplished princess of Europe, Louisa Mecklenburg-Strelitz, furnished the Germans with the first instance, for many years, of a happy union in the royal family. The fond couple retired to a country residence at Practz near the river Hard, where they led the lives of modest country people for several years. Here was passed the infancy of William and his brothers, both father and mother carefully watching over their physical growth, as well as mental advancement. To the young Queen, whom the old King, her father-in-law, called "the princess of princesses,"

was ascribed all the noble and charming qualities idolized in German womanhood. She was said to be *bildschön* (picture beautiful), with a heart as pure and tender as her appearance was lovely and attractive. Many stories are told of the visits made by this young couple to the humble homes of the peasants in the neighborhood, of the interest taken in their affairs, from which friendly concern originated the King's rustic title, "*Der Schulze von Practz*" (the justice of Practz).

An incident, which greatly increased his popularity while in Practz, was that in which he severely reprimanded an officer of his staff for conduct unbecoming a gentleman and a soldier toward the *Burger-Stand*. Said the King to the offender: "It is the people and not the ruler that furnishes the means for the maintenance of the army." This sentiment, so openly expressed, touched the hearts of those who had been accustomed to consider themselves "boasts of burden for the support of the state." It was a just acknowledgment of their relations to society and the government. But this idyllic life, however congenial to the young King and Queen was not without its evil consequences to Prussia. His almost total isolation from the world had the effect of increasing his natural diffidence. He was needed at the seat of government. Prussia was nearing the most critical period of her political existence. The great social upheaval was already in progress in France. Prussia's ship of state needed a man of sterling qualities, a warrior, a statesman and a diplomat at its helm, and still the King remained in the bosom of his family at Practz, his life a prolonged honeymoon; but a glance at the attractive face and a knowledge of the winning character of his young Queen doubtless absolved

him from the severe censure of his people. In these few years of happiness the King lived his short domestic life. While in its enjoyment, may he not have had premonitions of its brevity? It was under the watchful eye of these conscientious parents that Prince William passed his youth. In such a home he received life's early impressions. It would be natural to suppose that a child thus carefully and tenderly nurtured might be in danger of becoming a sentimentalist or averse to the duties that prepare men for an active military life; such was not the case, however. The home-law of the Hohenzollerns, "that in time of peace to prepare for war," applied as well to the family as the army. Princesses of the blood were early handed over to the royal drill-master, who was expected to impress their plastic minds with that love of soldierly order and discipline so necessary to a country whose soil had been, and was upon the point of again being, the battle-ground of many a contending power and faction. Accordingly, the sons of Queen Louisa we find at Potsdam in 1803, the oldest, Frederick, eight, and William five, appearing for the first time in the uniform of a Hussar of the Guard, and at the same time being presented with the medals earned from their military instructor. The loving mother, however, to whom these infant soldiers were first presented arrayed in the trappings of war, appeared apprehensive of the danger of giving her children a too strong military leaning, and later on wrote a letter to Professor Heidenreich of Leipsic, clearly showing that she had higher and nobler aspirations for the future of her sons than mere soldierly renown.

"It is my dearest and most earnest desire," she said, "to bring up my children so that they may be humanely

disposed, and I cherish the hope that I shall not altogether fail in my purpose."

It was evidently beginning to be perceived all over Germany, that in order to maintain the local independence of her small principalities, kingdoms and states, better armies must be raised and better generals provided. The best officers of Frederick the Great had all grown old, and besides were wedded to ancient systems of warfare. Says Lewis: "Although German literature was at its zenith, and Berlin was one of the centers of its productiveness, with its fashionable vanity of display came, also, the vanity of social display. The Spartan spirit of Prussia's early days had given way to effeminacy, luxury and indifference to religious traditions. Much was done to advance the sciences, arts, and the education of the people, but the antiquated machine of the administration remained much as it had been left by Frederick I. of Prussia, and his grandson, Frederick the Great. The whole army was in the worst possible condition. With a population of about ten millions, Prussia maintained an army of 200,000 men, splendid to look at and drilled in the most pedantic and wearisome fashion on the field of exercise, but without experience in battle, and full of pride founded on the renown of Frederick the Great's Seven Years' War. Whatever natural merits the officers had were lost in the habits of the army in a long peace. The elder officers were generally rigid and formal; the younger ones vain and presumptuous; nearly all were puffed up with the fond fancy that their army was invincible." That this was far from being satisfactory to the people is seen by the establishment of new military schools and in the general expression of fear, that Germany would not



be able to present a strong bulwark against the advancement of the "modern Attila of France, General Bonaparte." It was the intellectual growth only in Germany, that had kept pace with the political agitation of France and the United States. Although Frederick William III. was constituted to enjoy a peaceful reign, his sympathetic and amiable disposition prompting him to a liberal and enlightened policy, yet, when the emergency appeared, it was found he had inherited enough of the old Hohenzollern firmness, perseverance and personal courage, to see the needs of his country, and eventually ('tis true, after experiencing the most desperate straits, humiliations and defeats), to pilot her safely over the breakers that threatened to wreck her ship of state.

Before the year 1805 Frederick William III. had tried for a long time to form a league of the German princes in order to protect the neutrality of North Germany; but, through jealousy of Prussia's political supremacy, these princes chose to ally themselves to the cause of France.

This was Prussia's situation after the peace of Luneville, concluded 1801, between the German Empire and France. In order to understand the situation of Prussia in this peace, it is necessary to review the momentous events preceding the acceptance of this treaty by Prussia.

From 1794 to 1796 the leaders of the French Republic had repulsed and beaten the Austrians, and from a defensive position had assumed an offensive one. The ancient claim of France, that all the territory on the left bank of Rhine belonged to them, was now openly urged. In order to secure these demands the Directory decided to invade Germany at once, and with an overwhelming force. The Generals Moreau, Jourdan and Bonaparte were

charged with the execution of this project, each being placed in command of a formidable army. Jourdan commanded the left wing, covering Franconia and the countries along the lower Rhine; Moreau, the center, including Baden, Würtemberg and Bavaria. Bonaparte held the right. This "little corporal," in less than twelve months, had defeated the Austrians in fourteen battles; demolished the small Duchies of Italy, and established upon their ruins the Cisalpine Republic. He compelled Austria to sign the peace of Campo Formio, by which was ceded the Netherlands to France, the renunciation of all claim by Austria to possessions in the north of Italy, and an agreement to summon a congress of all the German princes at Rastadt, when the conditions of peace between France and Germany should be more firmly cemented.

During this time the young Archduke Charles, of Austria, had successfully resisted General Jourdan's attack, defeating him at Neumark and Amberg, and finally succeeded in driving him back across the Rhine. General Moreau's left was now exposed to the assaults of the victorious Austrians, which compelled him, also, to retreat, resulting in Moreau's famous march through Swabia and the mountainous roads of the Black Forest. These reverses of the French arms notwithstanding, the congress of princes assembled, as agreed upon, at Rastadt, and here was witnessed the betrayal of Germany's interest by a German Emperor, who entered into a private understanding with the enemy to cede to France the left bank of the Rhine, as originally claimed by the Directory.

The peace thus obtained, however, was of short duration. At the beginning of the year 1799, Austria having joined the coalition for the overthrow of the French

Republic, recalled her representatives at Rastadt, and France declared war against her for allowing Russian troops to pass over her territory. During the campaign that followed, the whole of Italy, which formerly belonged to Austria, was retaken with the aid of Russian troops, under command of General Suwaroff, the Cisalpine Republic throttled, and the old order of things reëstablished.

General Bonaparte, who had hastily returned from Egypt, took in the situation at a glance. He promptly offered terms of peace to the coalition, but Arch-Duke Charles' successes had inspired the allies with hopes of the speedy overthrow of the French Republic, and the reëstablishment of the Bourbon dynasty.

Bonaparte's overtures were unceremoniously rejected. This refusal and implied threat aroused the French, who hurried *en masse* to enlist under the command of the young general, who declared, since a peace could not be had by fair means, he must conquer one with his means at hand. Accordingly, at the beginning of 1800, a formidable army had assembled at Dijon ready for action. Bonaparte's first advance was toward Italy. Marching over the Simplon, St. Bernard and St. Gothard, he made his entry into Milan June 2, 1800, before the Austrian General Melas, who was encamped on the plains of Lombardy, was aware of his presence. On the 14th of the same month followed the memorable battle of Marengo, the bloodiest and fiercest of any that had yet been fought. The day appeared to be lost to the French, when General Dessaix, one of the bravest and oldest of the French generals, arrived with a fresh *corps de reserve*, renewed the struggle and, although mortally wounded, achieved a brilliant

victory for Bonaparte's division. In the meantime General Moreau had been successful in Germany. In the latter part of April he crossed the Rhine, defeated the Austrians at Stockach and Moskirch, and took possession of the entire country between the Rhine, the Danube and Lake Constance. Entering the Bavarian territory he threatened Munich, and at Hohenlinden dealt another severe blow to Austria. These battles of the two French generals, Bonaparte and Moreau, decided affairs for the time being between Austria, Italy and France, but it was to the latter, Moreau, that the French were indebted for the favorableness to France of the treaty of Luneville.

By this treaty the ancient order of things in Germany was completely overturned. The ecclesiastics lost all their possessions, and of the forty-eight imperial independent cities only Lübeck, Hamburg, Bremen, Frankfort, Augsburg and Nuremburg remained. Of the old electoral princes but four retained the semblance of their ancient prerogatives, while the domains of numberless small princelings were merged into the larger estates. Thus, were most of the prerogatives, which for a thousand years had been enjoyed through Germany's acquiescence in the rights guaranteed by the "Golden Bull," swept away by a stroke of the pen. These compulsory changes, however, while they occasioned many regrets and tears among the Germans, who were still attached to their crowned princelings, were not without their beneficial results, and it is questionable whether, but for the dexterous and expeditious strides of the "Corsican Ogre" through the heart of Germany, the German Empire of to-day would have been a possibility. Germany would doubtless have acquiesced in the dethroning of her petty princes, but the loss of twenty-

four thousand square miles of territory with four million inhabitants—the whole left bank of the Rhine, comprising Alsace and Lorraine—was a blow at the very existence of the German nation. The German princes, however, who had received additions to their territory by the treaty of Luneville, were Baden, Würtemberg and Bavaria. They, of course, became ardent admirers of the French “Ogre,” because he had shown himself their friend and benefactor. In their servility they introduced the French official system in the administration of their affairs of state and, finally, culminated their submission to French domination by severing their connection with the German Empire. As vassals of France, they entered into a confederation called the Rhinish-bund, and agreed to furnish to the French army a contingent of so many thousand men each. To complete Germany’s humiliation, the House of Hapsburg now voluntarily relinquished the title of Emperor of Germany—a title that brought him a small salary (\$5,000 a year), and but little more. After this date, 1806, the Hapsburg dynasty, which had furnished Emperors for the German Empire since the crowning of Rudolph, 1273, were now satisfied with the title only of Emperors of Austria.

Germany was now divided into three grand divisions: The Empire of Austria, the Kingdom of Prussia, and the Frenchified Princelings, called the “Rhine-bund.” Bonaparte had resorted to the old Cæsarian doctrine, “Divide and conquer.”

Southern Germany being safe and Austria isolated, Bonaparte considered the time opportune for paying his respects to Prussia. The vacillating policy of Frederick William, who had left Austria to fight her battles alone,

by declaring Prussia neutral, was now to reap its legitimate result. At the mercy of the now French Emperor (Napoleon I.), Prussia had not a friend to whom she could turn for assistance in time of need. Without the slightest warning, Napoleon issued a peremptory order to General Bernadotte, who, with his army corps was stationed in Hanover, to take the shortest route for Ulm. The shortest route lay through Prussian territory. This march was conducted with all the destruction of an armed invasion. Frederick William could no longer remain deaf to the entreaties of the Prussian war-party for an immediate demand for reparation and the placing of the army upon a war footing. But in the midst of Prussia's military preparations, and almost before her ultimatum to Napoleon had left the capital, came the news of the Russian and Austrian defeat at Austerlitz, whereupon Prussia withdrew her ultimatum, and the King put an end forthwith to further military preparations. Napoleon now retracted the promised annexation of Hanover to Prussia, and deprived her of the province of Anspach. He, also, compelled Frederick William to acknowledge the territorial acquisitions of France in Southern Germany; all this disgrace and humiliation of the King was accomplished by Napoleon without the firing of a shot.

So, it came to pass, that a courageous and proud people, over whom Frederick the Great had ruled, but a few years before, and who, under the leadership of his master mind, had not only maintained the integrity of the Kingdom of Prussia against the combined armies of Europe, but had materially added to her territory, were brought to the feet of the French "Ogre," through the halting policy of one of his descendants.

Frederick William, foolishly hoping that his selfish and unpatriotic neutrality would allow him and Prussia to remain in the full enjoyment of peace, was rudely awakened to a realizing sense of his danger by Bernadotte's bold execution of Napoleon's order. The truth was that Napoleon had long been aware of the energy, bravery and patriotism of the Prussians, and was determined to destroy a power which might become the rallying point and chief support of Germany's demand for independence. Napoleon felt himself strong enough for such an undertaking, well aware of Prussia's complete isolation.

In December, 1803, Frederick William had bound himself to peace and friendship with Napoleon on condition that Hanover should not be disposed of without the consent of Prussia. The pretense taken for arousing the King was the offer by Napoleon, after the death of Minister Pitt, to restore to England, his arch-enemy, the Duchy of Hanover. Frederick William now saw that he could no longer maintain his neutrality. His ministers, led by the patriotic Stein, pressed him to prepare for the unavoidable. The younger officers of the army were anxious for active service. They even went so far and were so bold as to appear before the window of the French Ambassador, to sharpen their swords and join in the chorus of Schiller's "Wallenstein," "Up, comrades, up! to horse! to horse!"

Frederick William, knowing the folly of attempting to meet Napoleon, whose army was now in Franconia, preparing for a march into Thuringia, and which numbered 200,000 men, while Prussia had but 150,000, hesitated and anxiously sought to fortify himself by alliances. Saxony and Weimar at last joined him. Austria remained

neutral, and Russia, had the Czar been disposed, was too far away to aid him. England was at war with Prussia. Finally, urged on by his ministers and indignant at the treatment he had received, on the 1st of October, 1806, he addressed his ultimatum to Napoleon, which was in effect that he withdraw all his troops, not only from the kingdom of Prussia, but from German territory also.

At the outbreak of the disastrous war which thereupon followed, Prince William was just entering upon his tenth year. There is no doubt but that the known relentlessness of the French invader and his determination to destroy the heritage of the Hohenzollern family, as well as to degrade the German people to a state of vassalage to France left an indelible impression upon his youthful mind.

A small picture has been preserved in the royal residence at Potsdam, representing the two sons of the King, accompanied by Professor Dellbrück, as they watched the departure of the troops for the front, but few of whom ever returned to tell the story of their defeat.

Not ten days after Napoleon's receipt of Frederick William's ultimatum, the Prussian army, under command of Duke Charles of Brunswick, then seventy-two years old, confidently marched to Weimar. Half the forces took up a position at Jena. Napoleon's army fell upon the Prussians at Saalfeld, near Weimar, and defeated the old Duke, who was slain in battle. Four days later Napoleon was at Jena. The morning was foggy, and the Prussians could not see the position of the French nor estimate their numbers. The French poured upon the Prussians from both sides of the plain, and a complete defeat of the Prussians under Prince Hohenlohe followed. They fled to Weimar in the wildest confusion.



Thus, in less than a fortnight, was Prussia's military power, which some of the old martinets had considered invincible, literally destroyed. Their forty years' peace had most effectually deprived the officers of the old martial spirit so predominant in the army of Frederick the Great.

Ten days after the battle of Jena, Napoleon marched into Berlin at the head of his victorious army, and in less than six weeks from the commencement of hostilities he had advanced as far as the Vistula, and made himself master of nearly the entire kingdom; had annihilated an army which had hitherto claimed and maintained its character as the most efficient in Europe, and was now in possession of the capital of its King.

Frederick William, forced to change his residence, went to Königsberg, in Eastern Prussia. A few days after the disastrous battle of Jena, the royal children were transferred to Chateau Schwedt, where the Queen awaited them.

"You find me in tears," she said, "because I weep over the destruction of the army, which, too true, has disappointed the King." Professor Dellbrück, in his memoirs, says, at this meeting, the afflicted Queen endeavored to impress upon her children the duty which lay before them in the following impressive language:

"In one day an edifice has been destroyed which will take great men two centuries to rebuild. Prussia, its army, and its traditional glory are things of the past. Ah, my children, you are not yet of that age when you can fully comprehend the great calamity that has befallen us! But after my death, and when you recall this unfortunate hour, do not content yourselves with merely shedding tears. Act! Unite your powers! Perhaps the

guardian angel of Prussia will watch over you. Liberate your people from the disgrace and degradation they will have to endure. Conquer France, and retrieve the glory of your ancestors as your great-grandfather did at Fehrbellin, when he defeated the Swedes. Be men, and strive to be great generals. If you have not that ambition, then seek death as Prince Louis Ferdinand sought and found it."

Under this depressing state of affairs in his father's kingdom, Prince William, at the age of ten, was made an officer in the Prussian army, after which the royal family were ordered to Memel, the far eastern frontier of the kingdom.

The health of the beautiful young Queen was now in a very precarious condition. The disaster to her husband and her beloved country had shattered her nervous system. "But I would rather die than fall into the hands of the enemy," she declared; and, accordingly, on the 3d of January, 1807, in a terrible snow-storm, she was placed in a carriage. And now began the long and tedious journey to a place of safety. Dr. Hufland, the court physician who accompanied her, says of this eventful journey:

"We were three days and three nights on the road. During the day we forced our way through the frozen marshes, and often the waves of the near ocean covered the coach with its dashing spray. The nights were passed in the most miserable shambles. The first night the Queen slept in a room, the glass from two windows being out, which permitted the snow to sweep over her bed. Our food was poor and insufficient. These hardships, however, seemed to strengthen her courage. Her reliance upon a providential God was unshaken. The change of scene

and the bracing air seemed to have a beneficial effect upon her health."

Not so with the children. Prince William, who was not suspected of having, in his youth, the strong constitution he proved to have, was attacked with a nervous fever and came near his death. To crown the Queen's melancholy, the news reached her that on June 14 a decisive battle had been fought at Friedland, Eastern Prussia. Her courage and noble character is best shown in the following letter written to her father, the Duke of Mecklenburg-Strelitz, three days after this depressing news had reached her:

"MEMEL, June 17, 1807.

"MY DEAREST FATHER: I have perused your letter of April last with the deepest emotion and amid tears of gratefulness. How shall I thank you, dearest, kindest of fathers, for the many proofs you have shown me of your parental love, your gracious favor and indescribable benevolence? What consolation is not this for me in my sufferings! How strengthening to my hopes! Thus beloved, to be completely unhappy is impossible.

"We are again threatened by another dire calamity, and are about to abandon the kingdom. Imagine my state of mind at this juncture; but I earnestly beseech you not to mistake the feelings of your daughter. There are two great principles upholding me, which elevate my thoughts and strengthen me: first, that we are not led blindly on by chance, but are led by the hand of God; and secondly, that if we must sink, we, at all events, must do so with honor. The King has shown, and the whole world believes it, that he prefers honor to disgrace. Prussia will never wear the chains of slavery. The King could

not deviate a step without becoming unfaithful to his character and a traitor to his people. But to the point: By the unfortunate battle of Friedland, Königsberg has fallen into the hands of the French. We are surrounded on every side by the enemy; and, as the danger advances, I shall be forced to fly with my children from Memel, and then endeavor to reach Riga, trusting to Heaven to assist me in that dreaded moment when I must pass the frontier of the Empire. Truly, all my strength and courage will be required for this effort. God must be my hope and confidence; for, according to my firm persuasion, we are not called upon to endure more than we can bear.

“Once more, then, dear father, be assured that we yield only with honor; and, respected as we shall be, we can not be without friends, inasmuch as we have merited them. The consolation I experience by this conviction I can not express to you; and, consequently, I endure all my trials with that tranquility and resignation of mind which can only be produced by a good conscience and a firm faith. Therefore, my dear father, be convinced that we can never be really unhappy, while many, perhaps, whose brows are oppressed with the weight of crowns and wreaths are as unhappy as ourselves; for as long as we are blessed by Heaven with peace within, we must ever find cause to rejoice.

“I remain, forever, your faithful and loving daughter and — God be praised that your gracious favor permits me to add — friend,  
“LOUISA.”

After the decisive battle of Friedland, referred to by the Queen, which occurred on June 14, 1807, a conference was held June 25th, between the two Emperors, Napoleon and Alexander of Russia, upon a raft on the river Niemen,



Königin Luise.  
Queen Louise.



at which interview it was agreed to leave Prussia to her fate, Alexander acquiescing in her dismemberment in consideration of Napoleon's agreement that he take Finland and divide Turkey when he should be ready.

In the vain hope of inducing Napoleon to modify his harsh terms, a number of patriotic men prevailed upon the King of Prussia to allow the Queen to make a personal appeal to him. Consenting with great reluctance, Louisa appeared before Napoleon, at Tilsit, on July 7, who received her with condescension, but was unmoved by her entreaties.

On the 9th of July, Frederick William III. signed the Treaty of Tilsit, which made him almost a pauper. He was compelled to part with nearly half his kingdom and half his people — about five millions. The city of Dantzic was declared a free city, that part of Prussia between the Elbe and the Rhine was converted into a new kingdom called Westphalia, and Napoleon's youngest brother, Jerome, made King. All west of the Elbe, the cradle of the Prussian monarchy, all that territory acquired by his father in the partitions of Poland, was taken away from Prussia by this treaty, Napoleon declaring that it was only out of consideration for the wishes of his ally, Alexander of Russia, that he left Frederick William anything. By this treaty, what was left of Prussian territory was to be occupied by French troops until \$109,500,000 indemnity was paid to France, a task which was accomplished in two years.

Those who suppose the sudden collapse of Prussia to be attributable to the deterioration and inefficiency of her army commit a great mistake. The cause of her weakness lay much deeper. With the introduction of French

literature was introduced the French standard of morals. The higher circles spoke French, dressed French, read French, and lived French lives. "We wish," writes a celebrated man at this time, "to protect our towns and territory from the attacks of the French; but ourselves and our minds have been long captive to France. Look at our manners, language and dress! We have become, so to speak, French inside and out, and yet we consider them our enemies. No man of sense will dispute the fact that when a people are thus enslaved, few will be found to stand up zealously for the defense of faith and fatherland." The great liberal divine, Schleiermacher, wrote to a friend, "The universal dissipation one sees on all sides is frightful to behold, and the depth of baseness and cowardice to which the people have sunk is only relieved by a few individuals, the King and Queen forming striking exceptions."

"Napoleon," says Alexander Japp, "had made the French a nation of fatalists, and not only the French but Germany too. Tasting the poison she, too, staggered like a drunken man." It was, then, easy to follow with French arms where French ideas had been received with so kindly a welcome.

Impressed with this degeneracy, the first minds of Germany began to write, speak and act. They were called the "Romancists." The most conspicuous were Schiller, who died in 1805; the brothers Boisseree, the brothers Schlegel, Tieck, Hardenberg (Novalis), Von Kleist, and Von Arnim — a class of writers, not without morbidness in their natures, but distinguished as interpreters of the impulses which moved men to noble deeds in mediæval times.

Accordingly, after the battle of Jena, the learned



philosopher Fichte asked permission to join the army with his students and to strengthen the patriotic ardor of the troops by frequent exhortations. Scharnhorst asserted that battles could no longer be won by the military arm alone; love of the citizen for country and freedom must be warmed into life; the moral principle of the soldier must be stimulated by making him a patriot instead of a mercenary and extinguishing his self-respect by degrading punishment.

Thus, from the day of the Treaty of Tilsit, Prussia seemed to be slowly realizing that a people with a past so glorious, a land so precious, and a patriotic King so humiliated, called for heroic action rather than time spent in useless regrets. "We have lost battles, have been robbed of our territory and treated with less consideration than the smallest power in Europe," said one of these conquered but not subdued Prussians, "and if we but acknowledge our own errors and faults, and finally resolve to mend our ways, all hope in a better future is not lost."

As there are supreme moments in the lives of nations as well as individuals, when a resolve to do then and there what the inmost impulse of the heart declares to be fair and right, Prussia had reached that moment when, through Baron Stein, in 1808, she resolved to prepare her State for a Constitutional monarchy. The State could only be rescued by beginning to rebuild from the foundation. The peasantry, who were still the serfs of landlords, must be freed from bondage, and other exactions which oppressed them must be removed. He should no longer be considered a part of the land, "but could choose his own employment and look forward to the possession of a piece of land for himself." The city people, too, were to be

released of guilds, severe police regulations removed, and the burden of supporting superannuated civil servants and invalid soldiers lessened; to the cities local government was to be restored, the delegates to be chosen from the citizens, the magistrates from the delegates, the burgo-master alone to be named out of three candidates proposed by the city; the freedom of the trades must supersede the tyranny of the guilds; in the country free markets were to be allowed and the exclusive privilege of particular mills to be abolished; any tradesman with sufficient money could buy a baronial estate, and any nobleman was to be at liberty to trade; a share in the affairs of State were to be offered to the people. This was the moral revolution Stein was to inaugurate forthwith. It was in this frame of mind that the patriots of Prussia received the news of Napoleon's rejection of the request of the Queen. The King now rose to the grandeur of the occasion and, fortune aiding him with wise advisers, the work mapped out was earnestly begun.

Napoleon was now in his greatest ascendancy in Europe. All the German States, except Prussia and Austria, had joined the Rhine League. Prussia had been so completely crushed that she was not even invited to join the Rhine League, had she been so disposed. In fact all of Europe except Great Britain was subject to the two great powers, France and Russia.

But it must be said of this military system, which had silenced all opposition and played with the crowns and crownlets of Europe, that it was not without its civilizing features. The *Code Napoléon*, with its recognition of the rights of the humblest citizen, the jury system, and other reforms calculated to benefit the masses, were intro-



**Königin Luise mit ihren beiden ältesten Söhnen. (Anno 1797.)**  
**Queen Louise with her two sons in 1797.**

duced during this period into the States of the Rhine League ; and although Napoleon's nepotism and unrelenting exactions of money and men robbed these Germans to an exasperating degree, upon the whole the condition of the peasantry was greatly improved and his sovereignty for a time was not felt to be so great a misfortune by the people of many of these States.

But unlimited imperial sway, the same as undue personal power, generally prepares the way for its own destruction. The arbitrary and heartless conduct of the French police and spies gradually caused a reaction in those who, at first, had been dazzled by the new order of things.

The wanton murder of John Palm, for the publication in Leipsic of a pamphlet entitled "Germany in her Deep Humiliation," created a feeling of intense resentment against the foreign governments established in Germany by Napoleon.

Baron von Stein, who was now Premier of Prussia, was ordered to proceed at once with his plans of internal reforms. With fervor and an iron will, he began his work. He commenced by limiting the power of the sovereign, which had heretofore been almost absolute, and increasing the liberty of the people. In fact, the whole list of reforms mentioned before were about to be carried into effect, when the liberalizing tendency of his administration and the almost instantaneous effect of his course upon the prosperity of Prussia, as well as upon the martial spirit of the people, were observed by Napoleon. Consequently, upon the pretext that Stein had spoken disrespectfully of him, in November, 1808, Napoleon issued a pronunciamiento "against a man by the name of Stein," upon which, being warned by the ambassador at Paris, Prussia's

prime minister was forced to flee the country, and the King to confiscate his estates. Baron von Hardenberg succeeded Stein, and carried out the policy inaugurated by him. Von Scharnhorst, Secretary of War, ably assisted the new premier, adopting the principle that true merit, and not the accident of birth, must secure promotion in the army. He abolished the enlistment of foreigners, by which a national sentiment of pride was stimulated, and also insisted that in every organized society its able-bodied members should be its defenders — the origin of the present military system known as Landwehr. As a natural consequence, these political and military reforms gave a powerful impetus to the spread of nationalism. The much-lauded efforts of the men at the helm were soon seconded by the efforts of pen and song, and authors followed these statesmen and soldiers, with electrifying effect.

One of the most appreciated of these was the patriot divine, Schleiermacher, who wrote: "We appreciate the culture of all nations, and would engraft in ourselves the flowers of every human mind. Egotism and national vanity are the two great enemies of progress. The noblest nations have been the most tolerant and the basest the most conceited."

Other authors, besides those heretofore mentioned, who wrote and worked were Herder, Humboldt, Klopstock, Lessing, Winkelmann, Kant, Weiland, Schelling, Hegel, and Goethe, who died as late as 1832. Their writings were suited to all grades of mind, from politician, poet, philosopher, scholar and scientist, down to the awakening peasantry and laborer. But Schleiermacher seems to have been the most honored divine and ethical instructor of the times.

Through his preaching, the individual conscience was awakened to a sense of duty. Honor and self-purification he held to be necessary to the substantial re-establishment of the Prussian nation. The sermons he preached produced a lasting effect upon the youthful mind of Prince William. His confession of faith, written by himself, on the occasion of his confirmation, which is in harmony with the honored divine's teachings, are proofs of the truth of this statement, although Schleiermacher is claimed as the founder of Unitarianism.

The continued occupation of the Prussian capital by the French necessitated the prolonged sojourn of the royal family at Memel. It was at this out-of-the-way residence that Prince William, December 25, 1809, received his appointment as Second Lieutenant, and where, under the care of Herr Zellers, one of Pestalozzi's pupils, and Professor Neiman, the foundation of his education was laid. Under the guidance of these excellent men, the princes studied ancient and modern history, and among others, "The History of Brandenburg," written by his ancestor, Frederick the Great, as well his history of "The Seven Years' War," and Schiller's "Thirty Years' War." At an early age, Prince William developed a strong military leaning, while his elder brother was attracted to other and more classical branches of learning. The progress of Prince William in military tactics was so rapid that in less than two years after his appointment to office, he had mastered all the details of the Prussian infantry drill. In the winter of 1809, the King and Queen returned to Berlin. Among the troops composing the escort rode the young prince, then about twelve years old. The royal exiles were welcomed by the people with enthusi-

astic demonstrations of joy. In passing under the famous Brandenburg Gate, the King was deeply affected at beholding the vandalism of Napoleon, who had taken the bronze horses attached to a triumphal car and carried the trophy to Paris.

Upon her return to Berlin, it was known Queen Louisa was fatally ill. The weight of her troubles had sunk deep into her young heart. The few terrible years of the King's reign had apparently undermined her health. The royal family were in deep affliction, and under this last visitation, family, as well as the people, grew earnest and serious. In writing to her father, Queen Louisa, whose heart was bound up in her children, said :

"Our son William will turn out, unless I am greatly mistaken, the same as his father; honest and intelligent. He resembles him most of all, but will not be as handsome. You see, I am still in love with my husband."

In a letter about this time sent to the king, she expresses a wish to once more visit her father, in Mecklenburg-Strelitz. This wish was granted, and on the 25th of June, 1810, she set out for the home of her childhood's days. There the King joined her. Overjoyed at the marks of affection everywhere bestowed upon her, she wrote upon a small piece of paper, which is still preserved :

"MY DEAR FATHER: I am very happy to-day in being your daughter and the wife of the best of men.

*"New Strelitz, June 28, 1810.*

LOUISA."

Her health, however, failed day by day, until her condition becoming alarming, by the advice of her physician, she and her children were removed to Hohenzieritz. Her symptoms there soon showing her near approach to dissolution, the King was informed, when he immediately set



out for her bedside. Surrounded by her family, who received into their sorrowing hearts her gentle admonitions and listened to her steadfast hopes of better days for those she was forced to leave behind, the young Queen and mother passed away the 19th of July, 1810, mourned by all Germany.

With a woman's keen perception, the Queen saw that Napoleon's supremacy in Germany could not be of long duration. In a letter written to her father shortly before her death, she prophetically said :

“I do not believe that the Emperor Napoleon Bonaparte is firm and secure on his throne, brilliant as it is at this moment. Truth and justice alone stand firm and secure; yet he is only politic, that is to say, wordly-wise; not acting in obedience to eternal laws, but according to circumstances such as he finds them. Besides this, he sullies his rule with many acts of injustice. He does not mean honestly to the good cause and to mankind. In his unbounded ambition he cares only for self, and for his own personal interest. At the same time, he knows no moderation in anything; and he who is not able to restrain himself must lose his balance and fall. I firmly believe in a God, and consequently in a moral order of the world, which I do not see realized in an ascendancy of brute force. I therefore hope that the present evil times will be followed by better ones. It is quite evident that all that has been done, and is doing, is not to be permanent, nor to be considered as the best state of things, but a state of transition to a happier goal. This goal, however, seems to lie far off; we shall probably not see it reached, but die in the meanwhile. God's will be done!”

Scarcely had the loved Queen been laid in her grave

ere the whole of Northwestern Germany was annexed to France. The explanation given was that "this union was dictated by the force of circumstances, which circumstances were that these provinces still continued to trade with England. Frankfort was also annexed to France, under the plea that "this city, founded by Napoleon's predecessor, *Charlemagne*, must no longer be kept from its natural union with France." But the "continental system" of Napoleon, which was, in effect, a commercial war upon England, began to produce its natural results. Contraband tradesmen sprung up everywhere on the frontier, and many branches of trade were entirely ruined. France herself was getting tired of supplying armies to be destroyed, but, nevertheless, Napoleon seemed at the summit of his power and fame. On March 20, 1811, the son and heir he had long wished for was born, and immediately received the title of "King of Rome."

Had the Emperor become drunk with glory? So it appeared to those who first heard he was about to declare war upon his old ally, Alexander of Russia. By some means the Czar had discovered Napoleon would never allow him to take Constantinople, and that he must be satisfied with the acquisition of Finland. He was also offended, it was said, that Napoleon had slighted his sister, for whose hand the Emperor had sued, but, without waiting for an answer, had married the Austrian Archduchess, Maria Louisa. Others who had stood by Napoleon were beginning to feel the heaviness of his hand. General Bernadotte, who had been adopted as the heir of the crown of Sweden by Charles XIII. (and whom Napoleon claimed to have made), saw that his country would be ruined without commercial intercourse with England.

Austria, which looked with fear upon Russia's domination in Europe, was inclined to France; also, because Napoleon was now the emperor's son-in-law. But Prussia, after trying in vain to form an alliance with Russia, sought to avoid a rupture with either side. But this was not to be tolerated by Napoleon. A net-work of troops was drawn around her from Dantzic to Hamburg, and finally the command was given, "that Prussia must furnish an auxiliary army to the French against Russia, of 20,000 men; must permit the transit of the French army across Prussian territory and support it on its way, and restore some of her fortresses; for which Prussia was to receive Livonia, Esthonia and Courland, when these provinces should be conquered from Russia. There was no escape and Prussia agreed; but so great was the dissatisfaction of the army that more than three hundred Prussian officers left the service and enlisted on the side of Russia. "In the spring of 1812, vast masses of troops — the largest armies seen in Europe since the united tribes of Attila moved on towards the plains of Marne — now moved through Germany towards Russia." Allies and all formed an invading force of 600,000 men. As they advanced "the Russians retreated to their inhospitable wastes," avoiding a battle and drawing their enemies after them. The troops suffered fearfully from disease and lack of food. The battle of Barodina, fought September 7, was not decisive, though one of the most hotly contested known in history, each army losing nearly 50,000 men.

Napoleon entered Moscow September 14, 1812. He hoped to secure an early peace. Instead, the Russians, at the instigation of Baron Stein, it is said, burned their ancient capital, the Emperor Alexander refusing to receive

Napoleon's messengers. In the middle of October began that terrible retreat with but a few hundred thousand men of Napoleon's six hundred thousand army entering Russia. A great snow storm overtaking them on the 6th of November, it is said, but thirty thousand succeeded in crossing the frontier. Napoleon, disguised in furs, left his army on December 4th, and traveled through Germany to France with all possible speed.

The Prussians fought half-heartedly as French allies, and, it is claimed, their General York was in friendly communication with the Russians the whole time. Be this as it may, York kept the Prussians away from the French, and upon the order to retreat allowed his division to be cut off by the Russians. York expected to be court-martialed, and wrote the King to this effect: "I lay my head cheerfully at your majesty's feet, if I have erred; and assure your majesty that I shall await the ball on the hillock as calmly as on the battle-field where I have grown gray," and adding, "Now or never is the moment to embrace freedom, independence and greatness. In your majesty's decision lies the fate of the world."

The Russians as enemies ostensibly, as friends in reality, followed the Prussians across the frontier and occupied Königsberg, the patriot Stein following close upon their rear.

Napoleon demanded York's removal, but the Russians would not let the aide with the order pass.

Klois, York and Stein, unauthorized by the King, began, in February, 1813, to organize a militia in East Prussia. The King considered himself still bound by his treaty with France, but he was borne along with the irresistible spirit of freedom pervading the hearts of his

Königin Luise.  
QUEEN LOUISE



people. He would not have been able to resist it, however disposed. Accordingly, on March 17, 1813, Frederick William III. and the Emperor of Russia met at Breslau, and entered into an alliance. The King issued a call two days later, addressed "To My People!" in the following patriotic language:

"My faithful people, as well as all Germans, need no explanation of the causes of the war which now begins. They are known to all Europe. Men of Brandenburg, Prussia, Silesia, Pomerania, and Lithuania, you know what you have endured for the last seven years! You know what will be your doom if this war does not end in our success! Remember your past; remember the Great Elector and the Great Frederick! Even small nations have fought with great powers, and won success in a cause like ours. Remember the Swiss and Netherlanders! This is the last and decisive struggle which we can make for our existence and independence! There is no escape: an honorable peace or a glorious death awaits us. Even the last we must meet for honor's sake, since neither the Prussian nor the German would survive dishonor. But we have a right to be confident. To our righteous cause God will give the victory!"

Frederick William III. being the first King who had ever thrown himself upon the confidence of his subjects, his earnest and manly appeal was responded to with the wildest enthusiasm. A popular uprising took place in Prussia such as had never before been witnessed. Old and young, rich and poor, nobleman and peasant, all vied with each other in sacrifices to be made for the re-possession of a common country. Such was the *elan* at this time, that in less than a month, two hundred and seventy-one thou-

sand armed men, out of a population of not more than five million, were ready to take the field for independence.

The young Prince William, now sixteen years old, was anxious to take part in the great campaign for his country's deliverance. His father, however, fearing the consequences at his age and the state of his health, which was delicate, refused to grant his request. As a compensation for the denial, he was appointed First Lieutenant of his regiment; but this empty distinction did not satisfy the proud-spirited boy.

"How can I, with honor, accept this promotion," said he, with deep disappointment, "if I must sit at home behind the stove while my regiment is before the fire of the enemy?" "Do not repine," replied his father; "you will lose nothing by obeying my orders."

The result of the campaign of 1813 against France, in which Prussia was joined by Russia, and which at the outset promised so much, came very near being a failure through the petty jealousies, cowardice, and incompetency of the Russian commanders, and doubtless would have resulted in utter defeat but for the efficiency of the Prussian officers, Blücher, Gneisenau and Scharnhorst. After the reduction of his "grand army of six hundred thousand men" in the snows of Russia, Napoleon at once ordered a new levy, and, to the infinite astonishment of his adversaries, succeeded in re-entering the field with four hundred thousand fresh troops. With one will the people of Prussia, in fact the whole of North Germany, arose to meet his advancing forces. The father of the dead Queen Louisa, the Duke of Mecklenburg-Strelitz, was the first to come forward with offers of men and means to the King of Prussia.



In this offer he declared with emphasis, "With the help of God, I will at all events show myself worthy of the honor of being a German prince," and his contingency of troops did show their ruler's worthiness, for a corps of Mecklenburg-Strelitz infantry, mainly composed of young recruits, upon meeting a corps of French veterans, under command of Viceroy Eugene, at Mockern, on their way to Berlin, after the first fire, did not attempt to reload, but fell upon their hated enemy with clubbed muskets.

The battles of Lutzen, Gross-Groschen and Bautzen resulted in French victories, but Napoleon was daily growing weaker. The campaign had been well begun by the French, but they had lost heavily in men, and could not retain what they had won. Blücher and Gneisenau were confident that another battle would give them the victory. Napoleon sought an armistice. He tried to gain over Alexander, as at Tilsit, with tempting promises; but Alexander this time refused his offers. The French army was at Breslau when Napoleon secured an armistice for seven weeks, which was extended two weeks longer.

The Prussians feared that this truce would lead to a suspension of hostilities. They hurried forward supplies. The militia were called from the distant provinces to reinforce the regiments of the line. Many Russian troops came to the front. Napoleon's army numbered, after more recruiting, 350,000 men. But during the armistice both Prussia and France had endeavored to add to their strength through more powerful alliances. Prussia had been most successful. Austria, from Prussia's former indifference as to her fate, stood dallying with both opposing powers for weeks, presumably to make the best terms possible for herself. She held the balance of power

for the time being. Finally, a congress was held at Prague for Napoleon to decide whether he would accept Austria's mediation. The decision was awaited by the allies with intense anxiety. It is thus described by one of our historians: "On the night of August 10th, the Czar and Prussian King watched in a barn at Trachenberg for the rocket that was to signal Napoleon's refusal to accept Austria's terms. It was after midnight when the rockets shot up into the clear sky. When seen, the whole Silesian army, which had been under York, broke out into the wildest expressions of joy; friends embracing with tears, groups of soldiers shouting, and salvos of artillery rolling away among the hills. On the 12th, two days after, Austria declared war against France."

Every power entering the coalition, except Prussia, demanded some profit for themselves. England, Sweden, Russia and Austria were all to be well paid, by slices of territory. Prussia asked for existence only. The allied force amounted to about 530,000 men, while Napoleon could bring together but about 450,000. Although fighting began as early as the middle of August, the decisive battle, known in Germany as the "Völker-schlacht" (Battle of Nations), was fought at Leipsic the 16th, 17th and 18th of October, 1813. In the height of the battle the bridge of Lindenau, the only outlet of retreat for French troops was prematurely blown up—a most barbarous act, by which thousands of flying troops lost their lives. The scepter of Napoleon's power was here broken.

The members of the Rhinish League, who were now convinced of Napoleon's downfall, hastened into the arms of the allies. The Prussian troops had covered themselves with glory, while their generals, especially Blücher and



**Feldmarschall Blücher (Marschall „Vorwärts“).**  
**MARSHAL BUCHER.**

Gneisenau (Scharnhorst having died in June from a wound received at Lutzen), were covered with dearly won laurels.

At the battle of Katzbach, which was fought on the 26th of August, 1813, the French troops in Silesia were almost annihilated by the Prussians, under the intrepid Blücher. He had allowed the French to defile through the narrow passes until he thought the time had come for an attack, when, placing himself at the head of his troops, he exclaimed: "Now, children, enough Frenchmen have gone by — come on — forward!" and the armed children, following, spread death and destruction among the ranks of their enemies. In the complimentary address issued the following day, to his brave soldiers he said: "By this great victory we have forced the French to abandon the whole of Silesia; we have captured one hundred and three pieces of cannon, two hundred and fifty ammunition wagons, two *French Eagles*, together with numerous other trophies, and have taken eighteen thousand prisoners, including many of their superior officers." After this battle his pet name among his troops was "Marshal Forwärts." His grateful King, shortly afterward, created him a field-marshal and prince, with the title of "Prince of Wahlstadt."

Blücher was the man (if we except Stein), in the war for German independence, who will live longest in the hearts and memory of his countrymen. His hard, unyielding hatred to "the invader" became a religion with him. He was the resurrection and re-habilitation of Frederick the Great's national hopes. A major of cavalry with "Grosser Fritz," it is said of him, that, in those early days, he was a very opinionated young fellow, who stood

upon having his rights upon all occasions. A junior officer being promoted over him, Blücher instantly offered his resignation to Frederick the Great, who, in the same spirited manner, accepted it, saying: "Major Blücher, you may go to the devil." Of course that did not end the major's martial career. Such a character was needed in Prussia's regeneration, and but for him the battle of Waterloo might not have ended, as it did, the political career of Napoleon Bonaparte. At the age of seventy, he possessed the physical and mental vigor of other generals of fifty. Whenever complimented for his achievements, he used to point toward Gneisenau, saying, "There is my head; to him and to the Almighty you must be thankful for the success." And, in fact, it was the indomitable courage of Blücher, combined with the military genius of Gneisenau, to which the great victories of that war are mainly attributable.

After the memorable battle of Leipsic, these two heroes were the first to exclaim, in a council of war held in the field, "Forward to Paris! Providence has furnished us with the means for the destruction of the despot. We should be unworthy of our country's love if we failed to employ them."

Prince William, who had been appointed a captain of the Royal Guards, was permitted to join the army in its march to Paris. "I shall take you with me," said the King, "but for six weeks only, because you are not yet quite strong." The Prince was in the suite of the Russian general, Jacken, when, on the 1st of January, 1814, as the allied troops passed the Rhine near Mannheim, he, for the first time in his life, became familiar with the sound of booming artillery. On the 27th of January, he

received his "baptism of fire" at the battle of Bar-sur-Aube, where he gave proof of his *sang froid* and personal courage.

A biographer thus describes this little episode of Prince William's first "smell of powder": "The King from an eminence observed one of his regiments cruelly exposed to the enemy's fire, and ordered his son to go and ascertain the name of its commander. The order compels the Prince to ride within the radius of a heavy infantry fire, exposing him to the danger of being shot from his horse. Without the slightest hesitation, he proceeded upon his mission, appearing in the midst of the astonished soldiers, fulfills his order, and, after having shaken hands with Colonel Yack, of the regiment, gallops back to his father with the desired information. Later on, he took part in the assault of the Russian regiment, Kaluga, on the heights of Malepin, and, as a reward for his fearless conduct in this battle, he was decorated by his father with the 'Iron Cross,' an order created on the 10th of March, 1812, the anniversary of Queen Louisa's birthday, and the greatest honor a Prussian soldier can receive from his King. The Prince also received an order from Alexander. The allied army was quickly and surely investing the remnant of Napoleon's forces. His battles were fought with the desperation of death."

At the village of Rothiere, where a strong position was held by the French, and where Napoleon commanded in person, the allies met an unexpected resistance. At last, Marshal Blücher hurriedly placed himself at the front, called to his troops in thunder tones, "Forward!" took the village by storm, and marched on toward Paris. Many more battles were to be fought by the allies, and

at one time they were upon the point of concluding a peace with Napoleon, and but for the energetic protest of Marshal Blücher might have done so. His request to be furnished with two additional divisions, and the increase of his troops to 100,000 men, being granted, he started on his way straight to the French capital. Every inch of the way was contested, but in vain. Napoleon must surrender. Accordingly, on the 31st of March, 1814, the King of Prussia, the Emperor of Russia, with the two sons of the King of Prussia, rode into Paris, the Emperor of Austria remaining some leagues behind. Paris had surrendered, and the Emperor of Russia had given the fiat of the allied powers, to-wit: that "they would, in no way whatever, treat either with Napoleon or any one of his family; and the French people were at liberty to choose another government." On the 6th of April, after Louis XVIII. had been acknowledged as King of the French, Napoleon signed his abdication and departed for the little island of Elba, in the Mediterranean Sea.

The Emperor of Russia and the King of Prussia now left Paris, accompanied by Prince William (who had since been promoted to a Majorship) and Marshal Blücher, set out for London to pay a visit to the English Prince Regent. From London, father and son proceeded to Switzerland, to take possession of Neufchâtel, which had been transferred to Prussia in the settlement, and on the 3d of August the solemn entry of the royal guards into Berlin took place—one of the great triumphal processions of history.

Hardly had the public mind become settled to the certainty of a returned peace, when the news of Napoleon's return from the island of Elba, and his arrival in



Paris, on the 30th of March, 1815, again threw Europe into consternation. The peaceful tone of his proclamation, in which the promise was most solemnly made "that the Empire henceforth meant peace," did not deceive the European rulers, who forthwith declared him an outlaw. His overtures being thus rejected, he attempted to compel, with an armed force, what was refused him peacefully; but Marshal Blücher and General Wellington put a speedy end to further parleying at the battle of Waterloo.

King Frederick William and his son William had started from Berlin to take part in this last campaign against Napoleon, but before reaching the army the news of his defeat and of his transfer to an English ship overtook them. Continuing this journey they reëntered Paris, in company with Alexander I. and Francis II. of Austria, on the 13th of July, 1815. Upon Prince William's return, he devoted his time and energies almost exclusively for the next two years to his military studies. In March, 1817, he received the appointment of Colonel, taking command of a battalion of the Guards. The following year, upon attaining his majority, he was promoted to a Major-Generalship, and in 1819 was honored with a seat and vote in the war ministry. In 1825, on the occasion of his birthday, he was placed in command of the Third Brandenburg Army Corps, and three months later received the rank and title of Lieutenant-General.

In June, 1817, Prince William accompanied his sister, Charlotte, the bride of the Czarowitch Nicholas of Russia, to St. Petersburg, and witnessed the marriage ceremonies, which took place on the 13th of July. In the latter part of May, the following year, King Frederick William paid

a visit to his daughter at the Russian capital, who had just presented her husband with a son (Alexander). Before taking his departure, the King entrusted his son William with the supreme management of the military affairs of his kingdom.

In October, 1822 and 1823, Prince William and his elder brother accompanied their father upon an extended tour through Switzerland and Italy, visiting Neufchâtel, Venice, Verona, Naples, Pompeii and Rome, at which place they paid their respects to the Pope. Prof. Bunsen, in whose care the two princes had been placed during this journey, writes of them as follows: "They are both very observant and intelligent. Prince William is of a serious disposition and manly character, which one can not behold and understand without being heartily devoted to him, and must in all sincerity hold him in high esteem."

The story of an early attachment of the Prince is often related, and may or may not be true. These affairs in royal families are most generally rather arbitrarily settled. The story runs as follows:

"The marriage of the Crown-Prince, Frederick William, was not blessed by an heir, and probabilities indicated that Prince William would one day succeed to the throne. Frederick William III. was especially proud of him. Firm, faithful, kind, and brave, the young Prince had become the army's idol. Unfortunately, he loved the Princess Charlotte Radziwill, then the belle of the northern metropolis. The handsome Prince seemed made for her, and she created for him. But it was in vain. The inequality of her birth was insuperable. The old dynasty to which she belonged outshone in power and wealth many of the princely houses of the fatherland, and once, in the day of

the Great Elector, Hohenzollern had led a Radziwill to the altar. But those days were changed. A more stringent code governed the alliances of the royal house since the reign of Frederick the Great, confining them entirely to immediate members of ruling families. The Radziwills ruled no more. Five years went by. Prince William refused to give up his choice. Everything was done to allay the doubts and accomplish the union. Persuaded by Prince Anton Radziwill, a prominent and powerful scion of the house, the great jurist, Eichhorn, attempted to prove, in a lengthy publication, the equality of his patron's family. But his learning could not overcome a prejudice and the erudition of distinguished opponents. As a last resort, Prince August of Prussia, offered to adopt Charlotte, but the theorists said that adoption would not replace blood. And other complications had arisen in the meantime. A young brother, Prince Karl, had married a Saxon princess, and the grand ducal court could claim the crown for the children of this union should the Radziwill marriage take place. Here was the crisis. Love could no more be the only consideration. The fate of a dynasty was at stake. This the King could not allow. Worked upon by his monitors, he finally but reluctantly decided to use his authority. This was in 1826. In a letter, every word of which breathed contrition and sorrow, he reviewed all that had been done in the case to please his son, but done in vain. Nothing now remained but to sacrifice himself for the welfare of his country and the salvation of the race.

“Receiving the letter from the hands of General von Witzleben, the prince was completely unmanned, weeping like a child. But gathering courage to stare destiny in

the face, he replied during the same evening that he would obey. He unburdened his soul to his father, assuring him that he would justify his trust in mastering his grief and hardening himself to the inevitable. The lovers were separated, and a year later, at an arranged meeting at the court of Saxe-Weimar, the Prince became acquainted with the Princess Augusta, just entering her sixteenth year. Of her, the celebrated savant, William von Humboldt, then said: 'She is a young lady of firm and independent character, with a quick and penetrating mind.'

"The young couple were betrothed on the 19th of October, 1828, and in June, the following year, the wedding ceremonies took place."

On the 18th of October, 1831, the anniversary of the battle of Leipsic, "Unser Fritz," Frederick William Nicholas Karl (Frederick III.), the late Emperor of Germany, first saw the light of day. Seven years later, a daughter, Louise, present Grand Duchesse of Baden, was born to the royal pair.

After the first occupation of Paris by the allies, a congress of the powers which had formed the coalition against Napoleon was called to meet at Vienna. This congress, composed of the princes and ambassadors, met in 1814, but did not finish its work until June 9, 1815, nine days before the battle of Waterloo. At this congress the map of Europe was entirely remodeled, and as best suited the convenience and according to the degree of influence the one or other of the sovereigns, or their representatives, could bring to bear upon the deliberations of the congress.

"The American reader will observe," says the historian Lewis, "that this self-constituted tribunal of

sovereigns assumed the absolute right to dispose, at its own will, of the people of Europe, assigning them, by nations, cities and districts, to such rulers, governments and political associations as pleased it."

By the stipulations of this congress, Prussia received the province of Posen, and half the Saxon territory, with 845,000 inhabitants. She also received the Duchies of Jülich and Berg, on the Rhine, and a number of other smaller districts and towns. Considering the sacrifices Prussia had made for the War of Independence, her share in the spoils was very meager, indeed; but what Prussia failed to secure in territory she gained in prestige among the people of Germany, as an exclusively German power. Without suspecting it, Austria and Russia had, by their niggardly treatment of Prussia, laid the very foundation for her future greatness and power. Her kingdom now became the nucleus of the great German idea — German unity. Germany was now formed into a confederation of thirty-eight states, and took the place of the former German Empire: of, which Austria, Prussia, Bavaria, Saxony, Hanover, Würtemberg and Baden were the largest.

In the act of confederation it was stipulated that all members should have equal and uniform rights.

That the general interest of the confederation must be discussed and arranged at a Diet, to be held at Frankfort-on-the-Main, under the presidency of Austria.

All members of the confederation to promise to unite together against foreign attacks; but never to levy war against each other.

*In all the states of the confederation there was to be a constitutional government.*

Religious liberty to be guaranteed throughout the confederation.

The Diet to occupy itself with the formation of laws for the liberty of the press, as well as for commercial intercourse between the states of the confederation.

Thus it would seem that after parcelling out territory and peoples in the most Russian fashion, the Congress took a long step in a progressive direction; but as was to be expected from an assemblage of which Metternich was the leading spirit, the promises made were those merely of kings, to be broken at pleasure.

On November 5, 1816, the first meeting of the Diet took place at Frankfort. In the clash of interests that immediately followed, everything relating to the establishing of courts and the internal government of the different states was forgotten.

It was plainly apparent at the very outlook that by giving to Austria the presidency, which at best was not a German power, but a conglomeration of various discordant nationalities, the seeds of contention had been sown. The most strictly German power, and which, by tradition and by the inherent German characteristics of her people, was entitled to the lead in a confederation of German states, was pushed into the background.

The preponderance given to Austria was also justly interpreted by the progressive party of Germany as a concession to Catholicism and a step in the direction of political retrogression. In fact, the smaller states of the confederation soon took sides with one or the other of these two countries which were striving for national supremacy upon this line of thought. Those states where religious bigotry and the servility of the people most prevailed sided with Austria, while those entertaining more liberal and progressive religious and political ideas leaned

toward Prussia. But, while the compact had thus engendered political strife between the members of the confederation, and Germany was losing what little prestige she had among the European powers, the salutary provision which compelled each of the states to keep the peace among themselves, had the effect of securing to the German people a period of forty-five years for recuperation — a period of prosperity and general contentment unknown since her golden days before the Reformation.

The material well-being of Germany, however, did not destroy the hope nursed in the hearts of her people for greater political freedom, which had been one of the incentives to their struggle for independence. They still sung and wrote of their achievements in behalf of country and liberty. They listened to the story of Armenius, and the share the Germans took in defending Europe against the corrupting power of the Byzantine Empire. They remembered, with self-exaltation, that Martin Luther was their countryman; that the world was indebted to them for the religious freedom it enjoyed; and it was to their fathers' bravery, under the lead of Frederick the Great, that Germany had been preserved from becoming part Cossack, part Austrian, and part French. It was Northern Germany — the land of the Saxon and Goth — which had offered the most, done the most, and suffered the most in all these early struggles for liberty of action and liberty of thought. They also felt that to their sacrifices, their treasures, their bravery and heroism, Germany's independence from French domination was mainly due. They had been led to believe that, after having suffered and sacrificed, and finally achieved these successes, and because the liberal policies of Stein and Scharnhorst

had proven eminently successful to Prussia, that the promises made by the King before the battle of Waterloo would be fulfilled.

This wish or aspiration for a constitutional government had taken deep root in the universities — the nurseries of the Reformation. German unity should mean a government founded upon German intelligence and equality. The students who had taken part in the conflict for the nation's independence, having passed through the common dangers of a terrible war, could not realize their insignificance upon the return of peace. They formed themselves into organizations — student veteran associations — called the Burschenschaft, the first of which was organized at Jena. In 1817 the number of orders included the universities of Tübingen, Heidelberg, Halle, Giessen, and one or two others. On the 18th of October of the same year, the representatives of fourteen universities assembled at Wartburg — of Martin Luther fame — and adopted a constitution. Their ruling incentive was united action towards securing for United Germany a constitutional government.

The hereditary monarchs of Europe, forming the "Holy Alliance," looked upon these liberal tendencies and manifestations as dangerous heresies and innovations, threatening the established order of things in Europe, and which it was their bounden duty to suppress.

Among the German powers, Austria led the reactionary movement. Metternich, the prime minister of the Emperor was the ablest and most diplomatic statesman of the age, but a sworn enemy to every liberalizing aspiration of the people. His efforts were accordingly directed towards defeating a constitutional form of government,



not only of the Confederation, but in Austria and every other German state. Every ruler felt the power of his opposition. While in the midst of this reactionary struggle of the monarchs against fulfilling the promises made to the people, the cry of murder startled the land, giving all Europe a sudden shock, and causing the people to pause in lending countenance to measures not in accordance with the laws of the country—the remembrance of the French revolution being still fresh in their minds. The cause of this cessation of active operations was the death of August Frederick von Kotzebue, a German dramatist of acknowledged talent, but of easy conscience. It was known that he had used his pen to give satirical accounts of those political organizations of the German students to the “hated despots,” and, more especially, to the Czar of Russia, in whose pay he was said to be. His death was decided upon by the Burschenschaft and his assassin was to be designated by lot. It fell upon a student named Sand, who went to Mannheim in Baden, where Kotzebue was then living, and appearing before him, with the wild exclamation: “This is for you—traitor to your country!” stabbed him to the heart. Sand was beheaded, but his execution was the occasion for a liberal demonstration, the students dipping their handkerchiefs in the blood of their martyred brother, accompanied with great lamentations. But assassination, when committed in the name of liberty, has always proven the best ally of despotism.

This murder of the author Kotzebue did not form an exception to the rule. It was as inexcusable as it was fatal to the liberal cause of Germany. Metternich at once seized upon the unfortunate occurrence as a pretext for the adoption of repressive measures. Upon his request, the

September following, the Diet at Frankfort passed the Carlsbad Resolutions, by which the Burschenschaft was suppressed, the freedom of the press destroyed, and inquisitorial commissions for the suppression of political agitation established. In May, 1820, Metternich's despotic policy was further strengthened by the adoption of the so-called "Final Act," by which every state was required to furnish military aid in suppressing movements of liberal tendencies in any part of the confederation; and to complete the slavery in which he hoped to bind the peoples of Europe, similar repressive measures were adopted by the congresses of the sovereigns of the "Holy Alliance."

But while the two greatest and, in a military sense, strongest powers of the German confederation were steadily pursuing the most illiberal and reactionary course, a strong anti-Metternich sentiment was growing up in the smaller states, some of which were ruled by wise and popular sovereigns who had conscientiously fulfilled the promise made the people of the several states in the act of confederation, to-wit: that there should be a constitutional government in every state of the confederation. The first sovereign to fulfill this promise was the Duke of Weimar. Nassau, Bavaria, Baden and Würtemberg followed in 1818. These liberal concessions had the effect of increasing the number and strengthening the convictions of those in the vanguard of political freedom; and as liberty is epidemic in its effect, the people of the larger states, from which these political advantages were still withheld, became gradually more restless. In Prussia, however, the people were indemnified for the King's withholding his promise by advantages in other directions.

It must be said to the credit of King Frederick Will-

iam III. that while he was naturally inclined towards absolute monarchism, and was politically under the influence of absolutists, of which Emperor Alexander of Russia and Prince Metternich were the master spirits, he was heartily devoted to the interests of his people, and gave every assistance in his power to the development of the resources of Prussia, and to the promotion of her agricultural industries and commercial interests.

Public instruction had never been overlooked by him, even in the darkest hour of Prussia's wars, and since peace had returned it received his special care and attention; the institutions of learning, from the elementary school to the highest colleges of science, were multiplied and brought to a high state of perfection. The University of Berlin owes its existence to King Frederick William III. He was also instrumental in bringing about a union of the Reformed Churches with the Lutherans, and in 1828 in forming the German Zollverein (Tariff Confederation).

## CHAPTER VII.

### AS CROWN PRINCE OF PRUSSIA.

IT had been charged that Prince William was merely a military martinet until he reached the throne. If this were true, future events have shown that it was not only the best thing for Prussia, but for the whole of Germany, that he was such. A careful study of the causes which led to the death struggle of his ancestor, Frederick the Great, as well as his own experiences during the years of his country's greatest humiliation and prospective downfall, and a knowledge of Austria's constant effort to belittle Prussia's influence with the smaller German states—all must have impressed the prince early in life with the certainty that Prussia's future safety and her position as a German power lay in making her as strong physically as she was becoming intellectually, and in the line of action laid down by Stern, Scharnhorst and other patriots of 1812 and 1813. Prussia, these men thought, could only exist under the protecting arm of a well organized and equipped army.

With France on the west, Austria on the south, the smaller German states an uncertain quantity, and a disaffected element at home, the Prince readily saw that some one of his family, if the family continued to hold its ancestral inheritance, must be at the head of the army. His love of order, discipline, and hopes for the prosperity of Prussia, fitted him for this branch of his father's government the best. Accordingly, from the date of his majority, 1818 to 1840, we find his life an exceedingly active



Opfer für's Vaterland im Jahre 1813.

BRINGING OFFERINGS FOR THE WAR OF INDEPENDENCE.



one. Aside from his natural interest, he was first made commander of an army corps, with the rank of Lieutenant-General, which office compelled him to aid in the reorganization of the army. His tours of military inspection throughout the provinces, as well as the professional missions to Italy, Austria, Russia, Switzerland, and Belgium at the request of his government, gave him little time for idling.

On 8th of June, 1840, his father died, and his brother, Frederick William IV., was crowned King of Prussia. This man was a monarch of more than ordinary acquirements. He was an orator of some prominence and his education was of the highest order. Like his father, he was fondly attached to his people, and earnestly devoted to their material interests; he conscientiously believed that by promoting these interests he was fulfilling his whole duty as King. It is true, he showed a more liberal spirit than his predecessors, but he was not in accord with the progressive ideas of the times, and the requests by popular leaders for a constitution were answered with such evasive remarks as: "I will not allow a piece of paper to push itself between me and my people."

An erroneous but unanimous opinion prevailed at this time, that the King was well disposed and in hearty sympathy with the reforms demanded by the people, but that Prince William was the evil spirit behind the throne. This charge has since been proven untrue in every particular. However, as the opposite of the truth is usually firmest believed, this impression continued to be held. Accordingly, his accession to the throne of Prussia, after the death of his childless and physically feeble brother was contemplated with much fear and apprehension.

In anticipation of such an event, Frederick William IV., on the 12th of June, 1840, conferred upon Prince William the title of Prince of Prussia, and the rank and title of General of the Prussian Infantry.

As before stated, the Prussians expected much of the scholarly King in the way of a Constitutional government. But although he had shown a liberal spirit when Crown Prince, when firmly seated upon the throne, he suddenly became an absolutist.

In 1842 he took a journey to England, appointing William, now forty-seven years of age, Regent during his absence. Says Baron Bunsen, in his letters, in regard to the opinions of the Prince upon the constitutional question then agitating the country :

“The Prince spoke with me more than an hour, *ad libitum*; in the first place about England, then on the great question—the Constitution. I told him all that I had said to the King of facts that I had witnessed. Upon his question, What my opinion was? I requested time for consideration, as I had come hither to learn and to hear; but so much I could perceive and openly declare, that it would be impossible longer to govern with Provincial Assemblies *alone*,—it was as if the solar system should be furnished with centrifugal powers only. The Prince stated to me his own position relative to the great question, and to the King, with a clearness, precision, self-command, and openness which delighted me! He is quite like his father; throughout a noble-minded Prince of Brandenburg—the house which has created Prussia.”

Two years after, William visited England, and was cordially received by Queen Victoria and Prince Albert. Says the Queen, in her diary published a short time since :



"I like him very much. He is extremely amiable, agreeable and sensible; cheerful and easy to get on with. He is very amusing, talkative and frank. On all public questions he spoke most freely, mildly and judiciously, and I think would make a steadier and safer King than the present. He was in ecstasy with the park and the trees, as he is with everything in England. He seemed to take a liking to England—admired her greatness, which he perceives to be a consequence of her political and religious institutions." But in his "Life of the Prince Consort," Sir Theodore Martin observes: "The cry throughout Europe at this time was for Constitutional government upon the English model; but the Prince seems to have felt that a Constitution like ours, which had grown up with the growth of the nation, and owed its form, as well as its stability, to the fact that it was in harmony with the national culture and life and habits, was not a thing to be applied to the other nations of Europe, where none of the conditions were the same." Further, Sir Theodore says: "A very cordial and intimate relation was established between Prince Albert and the Prince of Prussia during this visit. Frank and sincere as both were by nature, and both watching with anxious interest the aspect of affairs on the Continent, which was already prophetic of coming storms, this was only to be expected. The friendship was cemented by personal intercourse during four subsequent visits of the Prince of Prussia to England in 1848, 1850, 1853 and 1856, and came to a happy climax in the marriage by which the reigning families of Prussia and England became united in 1858."

When the news reached Germany that on the 24th of February, 1848, an uprising had taken place in Paris; that

King Louis Philippe had been driven into exile and a republic proclaimed, a great impetus was given to liberal ideas in Germany. The sovereigns of almost all the smaller States who, but a few days before had remained deaf to the pleadings of their subjects, now leant a willing ear as sovereigns always do at the specter of sudden revolution. They protested they always were the dear friends of the people, and never had any other object than the people's interests at heart. The people believed them, and were for the time being appeased by a change of ministry. The reactionary cabinets being dismissed, others professing more liberal views were installed in office. These were called "the March-ministers."

The people of Prussia were among the first to demand from Frederick William IV. their rights so long wrongfully withheld. "The King's intentions are good," they said, "but he is under the reactionary influence of Crown Prince William," who, at that time, as before stated, had grown to be most unpopular—the best hated individual, it was claimed, in all Berlin. Conscious of this, and fearing for his personal safety, he was ordered to proceed to the Rhinish provinces and take command of the portion of the army stationed there. This order elicited a violent protest from some of the most prominent men and supporters of the King in these provinces. The order was finally withdrawn, and the King issued a decree in which he promised to use his influence with the other German powers to meet and reform the Federal Constitution. This decree pleased the people, and in their gratitude they hurried in throngs to the palace to congratulate him. The King appeared upon the balcony, bowed his acknowledgments, and retired. The people remained, however, and



Prinz Wilhelm, 9 Jahre alt.  
THE LATE EMPEROR AT THE AGE OF NINE

after some time the request to disperse was answered from a thousand throats: "Away with the military!"

While some of the leaders hastened to the King to consult with him, two shots were fired, and the cry, "Treason! treason!" was raised by the excited populace. Flying to arms, they immediately began to erect barricades. They were attacked by the military on March 18th, and the battle renewed next day. Canister was used, and the revolutionists were mowed down without discretion. Along in the afternoon, a deputation of both loyal and liberal leaders appeared before the King, to impress upon him the necessity of stopping further bloodshed. The King reluctantly complied, and withdrew the troops from Berlin. This was interpreted as a concession and was claimed as a great popular victory, which the rioters wished to intensify by compelling the King and Queen to view the ghastly work done by the army. Transporting about two hundred of the bodies of those who had been shot to the royal palace, the King and Queen were requested to appear and honor the dead, which they did without hesitation, the King respectfully removing his hat during the ordeal. From the King their indignation was now transferred to Prince William, whom they accused (erroneously, as before stated) of having issued the order to fire upon the people. The origin of this charge was that William had urged his brother to maintain his dignity, and not to quail before the mob. He had, also, advised him to give the people, without hesitation, the Constitution they were clamoring for. That this was his attitude was stated by the officers of his staff, who solemnly averred, that during the time the emeute was raging, "he refused to give any order what-

ever, even upon the most pressing occasion, always replying, 'I have no orders to give!'" So that the sobriquet, "*Kartätschen Prince*" (Canister Prince), which was given him at the time, was not deserved. The odium attached to this act, notwithstanding, finally alarming the friends of the Prince, the King sent him upon a mission to England, William refusing to go until it could be shown he had not fled to escape injury to his person. While in London he was not idle, but, enjoying the society of Peel, Palmerston and Lord Russell, he had an excellent opportunity to carefully examine the methods of the English government. These days of exile were for him invaluable, because Kings never advance in earnest except under the spur of necessity. And if this few months' sojourn in that wonderful country did not send him back to Prussia an enthusiastic admirer of England's representative form of government, it furnished him with the evidence that liberty is not inconsistent with monarchical institutions. That these were his impressions is seen in the following letter, written to the King on his return journey to Berlin:

"I beg respectfully to inform your Majesty that, in accordance with the commands imparted to me, I have quitted London, and am at present on the Continent. I deem this a most opportune moment for giving renewed expression to the sentiments, already well known to your Majesty, with which I return to my native country. I venture to hope that the free institutions, to found which still more firmly your Majesty has convoked the representatives of the people, will, with God's gracious aid, become more and more developed to the benefit of Prussia. I will devote all my powers sincerely and

faithfully to this development, and look forward to the time when I shall accord to the Constitution, about to be promulgated after conscientious consultation between your Majesty and your people, such recognition as shall be prescribed to the Heir-Apparent by Constitutional charter."

In the meantime, the revolution was making rapid progress in Germany. The report was circulated that the King of Prussia had been seen riding through the streets of Berlin, decorated with the national colors of black, red and gold, and had publicly declared, that "Prussia must henceforth be merged into Germany."

On March 31st, the Vorparlament (Preparatory Parliament), composed of the members of the different representative assemblies of the states, met at Frankfort. On the same occasion the old Diet of the German confederation of princes assembled in the same city, and adopted an order establishing a German Parliament upon the basis of universal suffrage.

On the 28th of May, Prince William, who had returned to Berlin, publicly declared: "A clear conscience alone has enabled me to live through what has recently befallen me, and with a clear conscience I return to my fatherland. I have all the time hoped that the day of truth would dawn. At last it has dawned. Meanwhile much has been changed in our country. The King has willed that it should be so; the King's will is sacred to me; I am the first of his subjects, and adhere to these new conditions with all my heart; but justice, order, and law must govern, not anarchy—against this last I will strive with my whole might. That is my calling in life."

The Prince was even prevailed upon to take a

seat in the new National Parliament, to which he had been elected in his absence. At the opening of the assembly, he heartily welcomed his colleagues, and gave his assurance that he would conscientiously fulfill his duties as the first subject of the King.

It could well be anticipated, knowing the leaning of the King of Prussia, that the concession made by him under the pressure of events over which he had no control, would not be received with the same satisfaction by the people as if made upon his own volition. His good faith was questioned by many, not only in Prussia, but all over Germany, who declared he could not consider himself in duty bound to keep promises made under duress. This sentiment was fostered by the extremists with pet theories, by demagogues who had nothing to lose but everything to gain by revolution, but principally by the adherents of Austria, who improved the opportunity to intensify the anti-Prussian sentiment among the people of Southern Germany. Riots and bloody conflicts between the people of Prussia and elsewhere were the natural result of such a state of conflicting public sentiment. Prince William had retired from public view and was quietly living in Babelsberg, while political apathy and indifference seemed to have taken possession of the King. The German Parliament had committed the blunder of electing the clever sportsman, Archduke John of Austria, to the position of Reichsverweser (Vicar of the German realm), commander-in-chief of the armies of the German confederation, and charged with the execution of the decrees of the German Parliament. Archduke John assumed the office with great pomp; but the armies he was to command were not forthcoming, and the decrees of Parliament remained, consequently,



unexecuted; nor did this unwillingness on the part of the German sovereigns to assist him seem to disturb him much, but rather to give him an excuse for not acting. He was an Austrian and was elected through Austrian influence; consequently, bound to prevent the very thing the reform Parliament had charged him with, to-wit: National liberty and union.

The hopes of every patriot of Germany were now centered upon Prussia, but the King seemed not disposed to aid in strengthening the federal power as long as Austria was at its head. Rome, it was claimed, was also active in endeavors to diminish as far as possible the influence of the Protestant power in the north of Germany. Efforts had been made by a highly esteemed Catholic prelate, Herr Wessenberg, to establish a separate German Catholic Church. Ultramontanism (beyond the Alps) was at its height in Austria and some of the smaller German states. Indifference and inaction in Prussia, and impotency at the head of the German Parliament: such was the condition of the confederacy in the spring of 1849. In the meantime disturbances had taken place in Schleswig-Holstein.

Denmark, by the possession of Holstein, had become a member of the German Confederation, and her population sympathized more with Germany than with Denmark, which sentiment took the form of an open revolt in 1848, and the King of Prussia was appealed to for assistance. Prussian troops under General Wrangle were sent against the Danes, who drove them from Holstein, but Russia having protested, an armistice was signed at Malmö. The armistice, however, could not be completed unless ratified by the National Parliament at Frankfort. Its introduction was received with noisy demonstrations of disapproval, and

only after a lengthy and most acrimonious debate between the liberal and conservative members of the assembly, was it finally ratified. In the spring and summer of 1849, Prussian troops again entered the Duchies, but withdrew in 1850, and, together with Austria, sided with Denmark, when by this coalition the Duchies were completely subdued.

This seeming subserviency of the central power of Germany to Russia's dictation, created the most intense excitement among the people, which found expression in a mass-meeting of liberals, held in an open field near Frankfort, when they resolved to march, on the day following, in force before St. Paul's Church, where the Parliament was in session, and there demand that the armistice be declared null and void, and in case of refusal, to disperse Parliament by force.

This plan was frustrated, however, by the timely arrival of a body of Prussian troops, after a short but bloody encounter with the revolutionists in the streets of Frankfort.

## CHAPTER VIII.

### THE REVOLUTION IN BADEN.

IN Southern Germany, especially in Baden, the revolutionary element, led by the well-known Frederick Hecker, was not inclined to await the slow development of free institutions through Parliamentary action, but resolved to strike for "liberty, equality and fraternity" at once. Hecker had been a member of the Representative Assembly of Baden for six years, and on every occasion he espoused the cause of the people with enthusiasm and energy. But he was far in advance of the people, and when, in April, 1848, he declared the Republic at Constance, his followers were few. But undaunted, and in the firm belief that the people would flock to his standard, he marched with an army of 1,200 men to Freiburg, with the intention of declaring a Republic there; here, also, he found but little enthusiasm for his undertaking, and after the first encounter with some regular troops from Baden and Hesse, he was defeated, and with a handful of his followers retired across the Rhine into Switzerland. In September following, another attempt to revolutionize Southern Germany was made by Gustave von Struve, which failed more ignominiously than had Hecker's. During November, the liberals of Vienna had raised the standard of revolution, but the Austrian army, composed of nationalities inimical to Germany, had no sympathy for the revolutionists, and were consequently not only ready, but eager, to suppress the popular movement there. The struggle was short and decisive, the noble Robert Blum, a liberal

member of the German Parliament, was shot by order of the bloodthirsty General Wendischgrätz, while other patriots, among whom were Oswald Ottendorffer, the present publisher of the New York *Staats Zeitung*, and Heinrich Binder, editor of the New York *Puck*, were compelled to fly from their native land.

The revolution in Hungary came nearest being successful of any that was attempted at this time in Europe. The Magyars were thoroughly organized, and under such leaders as Louis Kossuth, Bern and others, the liberal army numbered 200,000 strong. They would have been successful had not Russia come to the aid of Francis Joseph with a large army, and decisively defeated the Hungarians at Temesvar, when many of the rebel officers were court-martialed and shot by the infamous Haynau.

The revolution which followed in Baden, although unsuccessful, left its impress not only upon the countries directly concerned, but also indirectly upon the affairs of the United States, as in course of time most of the prominent actors found a refuge and permanent home here.

Although the Constitutional Parliament had succeeded after much discussion in adopting a series of articles embodying the framework for a future constitution, the people, collectively, of Germany, were not satisfied, nor was it expected this constitution would be accepted by the various rulers.

On the 28th of March, 1849, the imperial crown of Germany was offered by the majority of Parliament to the King of Prussia, Frederick William IV.; the smaller states accepted the choice, but Bavaria, Würtemberg, Hanover, and Saxony refused; Austria formally protested, and after some hesitation, Frederick William himself declined be-

König Friedrich Wilhelm IV.  
KING FREDERICK WILLIAM IV



cause the Diet of the princes and rulers had not offered it to him.

Thus were the fruits of a whole year's Parliamentary labor lost, and the hopes of the people destroyed. All further efforts by these means appeared now like mockery, and the prolonged deliberations of Parliament henceforth seemed but a farce.

There was but one course left, and that was—Revolution.

The Revolutionists—revolutionists in so far as they were determined to compel the German princes to give them a constitutional government as they had promised, commenced operations early in May, 1849, with the expulsion of the Grand Duke of Baden, who, with his family and court, and the higher civil and military officers, departed in great haste at the sudden uprising of his people, who were now fully aroused and in bitter earnest. The rank and file of the army, and a few officers of lower grade, joined the people and established a provisional government at Carlsruhe; the places of the deserted officers were filled from the ranks, and the troops marched to the frontiers to resist the invasion which would be sure to follow, unless equal success should attend simultaneous movements elsewhere. The adjoining Bavarian province across the Rhine followed the example of its neighbors in Baden, and the people took possession of the offices left vacant by the departed functionaries. The government in Baden was first represented by a General Committee (Landesausschuss) in May, consisting of twenty-four members, of which Lorenz Brentano was President and Amand Gögg Vice-President; on the 1st of June that committee was substituted by a Provisional Government of five members,

Brentano, Gögg, Peter, Fickler and Sigel, and towards the end of the war the political power was turned over to an Executive of three members, (Dictator) Brentano, Gögg and Werner. Besides this, a Constitutional Convention was called, consisting of seventy-four members, of whom sixty-three appeared at the first meeting; it, however, adjourned *sine die* on the 18th of June, after having appointed an Executive of three, already mentioned. The garrisons (excepting that in the Fortress of Landau) fraternized with the people. Volunteers in great numbers poured in from all parts of the country. Gen. Sigel raised, organized, and as far as was practicable, equipped the revolutionary army, which was under his command during the first period of the war, until Mieroslawski was appointed Commander-in-Chief, and then Gen. Sigel himself, although Secretary of War, entered the field as the Adjutant-General of that officer. An uprising had taken place in Dresden, but was suppressed, and the fugitives from Saxony joined the insurgents in Baden and Rhinish Bavaria. These two countries agreed to form an alliance for mutual defense, under the direction and military leadership of Baden. Under this agreement the military forces of the two countries were organized into six divisions, with a total strength for active duty of about 25,000 men. Those of Rhinish Bavaria formed the Sixth Division, under the command of Gen. Sznayde. Ten thousand volunteers more of the fugitives from Saxony were organized; soldiers deserted in many places and swelled the ranks of the Revolutionists, who, for a period of about a month had things all their own way.

Meantime, Prussia, Hesse-Darmstadt and Nassau gathered up their forces, 70,000 infantry, 7,000 cavalry and



126 pieces of artillery, under command of Prince William of Prussia, and concentrated them along the northern borders of Baden and the adjoining states in rebellion ; a few preliminary skirmishes took place on the southern frontier of Darmstadt, and finally, in the latter part of June, the armies of invasion approached in force along both shores of the Rhine, and also crossed the Bavarian line in two columns from the north and west, converging as they advanced. The fortress of Landau had remained in possession of the loyal troops of Bavaria, notwithstanding a bold attempt to capture it, and with such a dangerous enemy in the rear, it was not considered safe to risk any decisive engagement in its vicinity ; the Revolutionary forces retreated, therefore, slowly before the invading armies, and after a few unimportant engagements, crossed the Rhine opposite Carlsruhe, and joined the better-organized and much larger forces in the Duchy of Baden. The plan was to surround the army of the Revolutionists by a concentric movement from the north, east and west. The Revolutionary army was at that time posted in the fork of the Neckar and Rhine, from Mannheim to Heidelberg, with a small detached corps further east in the mountains, and consisted of about 25,000 men, of whom 15,000 were revolted regular troops who had taken sides with the people. The others were volunteers, hastily assembled and armed. Could they have procured arms enough, they could have put many more in the field—50,000, easily—but their resources were limited.

Against the projected movement of the army under the Prince of Prussia Gen. Mieroslowski proposed to hold his position, defend the line of the Neckar, and throw himself against the first corps which would pass that river

or the Rhine. He allowed the Prince of Prussia to cross the Rhine from the fortress of Germersheim, but on the same day, which was the 20th of June, marched against him with 15,000 men, 10 squadrons of cavalry, and 28 pieces of artillery, leaving about 10,000 men to guard the line of the Neckar against Von Groeben and Von Peuker, and to protect the crossing of the Rhine, in the neighborhood of Mannheim against the corps of the Prince of Thurn and Taxis. When the Prince of Prussia crossed near Germersheim, he left one division near Wiesenthal and Waghausel, and with three divisions marched east toward Graben. On the morning of the 21st of June the revolutionists assaulted the division left near Waghausel, and totally defeated it. During this affair the present Emperor of Prussia, who had accompanied his father, William, on this expedition, was slightly wounded. After another engagement near Upstadt between the Revolutionary troops from Bavaria and the Prussians, the combined forces of the rebellion took a second position near the fortress Rastadt and behind the river Murgh, where, on the 28th, 29th and 30th a battle was fought against the united three corps of the enemy. The troops fought very bravely, but while they were fighting in front Von Peuker marched into their rear and compelled them to change their position to meet him. In brief, they were overpowered. After that battle, and when the troops were on the retreat to Offenberg, some dissatisfaction arose in regard to the management of the army by Gen. Mieroslawski, and besides, he had given up all hope of success. He therefore resigned, and Gen. Sigel was again put in command of the forces. They made great exertions to retrieve their losses and continue the war, but



Friedrich Wilhelm IV. in seinem Arbeitszimmer.  
FREDERICK WILLIAM IV. IN HIS STUDY.

the Revolutionary army was not now over 8,000 strong. Political dissensions broke out among the leaders, which lead finally to a separation of the troops. A large part of the army took shelter in the fortress of Rastadt, where they withstood a siege of nearly a month, while the remainder, constantly diminished by desertion, retreated slowly before the advancing Prussians and other German troops, through the Black Forest to the borders of Switzerland, where they were disarmed by the Swiss authorities and permitted to take refuge in the different Cantons of the Confederation. Of the army of 25,000 men, about 10,000 crossed the Rhine into Switzerland, and now the work of "pacification" and revenge under the special care and authority of Prince William began. Prussian drumhead courts-martial took charge of the unfortunate prisoners who had laid down their arms and were now at the mercy of the conqueror. Of those who had surrendered at Rastadt, nineteen were sentenced to death and shot. Three were shot in Mannheim, five in Freiburg and one in Landau; sixty-six were sentenced to ten years' imprisonment; besides this, 10,000 persons were criminally prosecuted, and, when found guilty, their property was confiscated. During 1849 and 1850 Baden alone lost 100,000 inhabitants by fleeing from the hands of their persecutors or by voluntary exile.

The rank and file were quartered and subsisted at the expense of the Swiss Government, until they gradually took advantage of the proffered pardon and returned home. The leaders, who could not return, settled down temporarily in various parts of Switzerland; but in the spring of 1850 the Swiss Government, under pressure from its surrounding neighbors, induced, under the promise of

assistance, the greater number to leave the country. A general exodus followed; Holland, Belgium, South America and England were sought by many, but by far the greater number embarked for the United States at once.

Says M. J. Becker, one of the Forty-eighters and now Chief Engineer of the St. Louis & Pittsburgh Railroad Company, and who with General Sigel has furnished the following biographies of the Revolutionists who fled to this country: "The struggles, hardships, privation and sufferings endured by most of these men during the earlier days of their American experience would form extremely interesting, but in many instances very sad, chapters in the histories of their checkered lives. Many fell by the wayside exhausted, and died of want in the crowded cities of the Eastern coast; some, in utter despair, cut short, with their own hands, the hopeless misery of their wretched existence. That the occupations which some were forced to accept did not in all cases afford opportunities for improving the advantages of their earlier education may be readily imagined.

Says Mr. Becker, "I remember well, that in my own case, while I was trimming toothsome bunches of bright red early radishes, and tying up bundles of fragrant young onions for the daily market, long before the rising of the summer sun, upon a garden farm on Long Island, I often bewailed the misdirected applications of my early youth; and even the mathematical tracing of the parallel furrows for the transplanting of beets and cabbages, and the engineering precision displayed in the setting out of the succulent tomato vines, failed to satisfy my professional ambition; nor did I consider the compensation of four dollars per month for fifteen hours of daily toil an

adequate reward for skilled labor like this. It is true, I had board and lodging besides. The board, I am bound to say, was inferior in kind, though ample in quantity; but the lodging was on a most liberal scale. I had the whole of Long Island to sleep on, with millions of mosquitoes sweetly singing their lullabys.

“One day I met, in the lower part of New York, a young sculptor, who in his early youth had been a school-fellow of mine, and who, while pursuing his studies at the Academy of Fine Arts in Paris, had been drawn into the common whirlpool of rebellion, and after drifting about for a while in Belgium and England, had arrived in America a short time before. Although still quite young, he had achieved remarkable success, and had been rewarded with a prize medal in recognition of his talent and genius. We were glad to see each other. After a rapid exchange of experiences, I ventured to ask how he was prospering in his profession. ‘Ah, you should come to my studio and see for yourself,’ he said; ‘I am just now engaged in putting the last finishing touches upon some magnificent masterpieces of plastic art; you must see them before they leave my studio.’ Responding to his invitation, I found him, a few days afterwards, in a low, dingy back room of a small carpenter shop in Greenwich Street, busily engaged in rubbing down with sandpaper the colossal limbs of a wooden Pocahontas, destined to adorn the entrance door of a tobacco shop.”

But in accordance with the law of natural selection, in the universal struggle for existence, the fittest will always survive: and the following sketches of some of these men of Baden prove the axiom.

GENERAL VON MIEROSLAWSKI. The General was a highly educated man, full of fire and courage, a great

speaker, and excellent strategist; but he did not understand the language of the people of the country and of the soldiers with whom he had to act, and had not sufficient experience in the tactical management of troops. He was very patriotic, and served the Revolutionary cause with great faithfulness. He was at that time 34 years of age, had taken part in the Polish Revolution of 1831, in the insurrections in Posen and Sicily in 1848, and has written several works, among them one on "Revolutionary War," which is regarded as the best of its kind. Mieroslawski again took part in an insurrectionary movement in Poland in 1863, and died in Paris 1878.

GENERAL SIGEL crossed the Rhine at Eglisau, near the Canton of Schaffhausen, on the 11th day of July, with 4,000 men and 32 guns, lived an exile in Switzerland, Italy and England, whence he emigrated to America in 1852 (after the *coup d'état* of Louis Napoleon) and arrived at New York on the 5th of May, where he soon found employment as a civil engineer. When war was declared between the North and the South, he was placed in command of a brigade in Missouri. His famous retreat from Carthage, in Missouri, in July, 1861, before Governor Jackson's superior forces, was a skillfully-executed artillery maneuver—this being the arm of the service in which Sigel had been especially trained. At Wilson's Creek and Pea Ridge his professional acquirements again came in good play on a limited scale, and brought his name into such prominence, that, when the Army of Virginia was organized in June, 1862, under Pope, Sigel was assigned to the command of the First Corps, after Fremont, who was unwilling to serve under Pope, had resigned. Between Pope and Sigel frequent misunderstandings arose





**Kaiser Wilhelm I.**  
**Emperor William I.**

regarding the meaning of orders on the one side, and their interpretation and execution on the other, which led to ill-natured reproaches on the part of Pope, with complimentary returns by Sigel.

After the second battle at Bull Run, Pope was relieved by McClellan just prior to the Antietam campaign, during which campaign Sigel commanded the Eleventh corps of the re-organized army, a circumstance which goes to prove that Pope's war upon Sigel was entirely the result of personal prejudice.

Since the war the General has lived in New York. Once or twice he has taken part in political campaigns, speaking to the Germans, and defending the Democratic side of the issue since Tilden's nomination. He has held various offices in the City of New York, Register of Deeds and on the Board of Public Works, and is now serving the Government of the United States as Pension Agent for the district of New York City. He is a man of great acquirements, speaking several languages, and a writer of merit, a genial gentleman and honorable man.

FREDERICK HECKER. Hecker, mortified and sorely disappointed, took refuge in America, and settled, with a few of his immediate friends, near Belleville, in Illinois.

He had been the leader and Parliamentary champion of the people in that first crude and primitive specimen of representative government in Germany—the Chamber of Deputies of the Grand Duchy of Baden—for six years prior to 1848. Eloquent, sincere, enthusiastically devoted to the people by whom he had been chosen, he enjoyed, in return, a popularity seldom gained by mortal man. Of handsome presence, graceful figure and impressive countenance, frank in speech, prompt in action, he was idol-

ized by men and women alike. The famous Hecker Song could be heard upon the highways and byways of Southern Germany, in village and city, sung early and late, by young and by old, with enthusiastic fervor, and *encored* to the echo.

Of sanguine temperament himself, personally brave and fearless to a fault, it is not surprising that he, flattered by every possible manifestation of popular devotion, and believing firmly in the righteousness of his cause, did not only count upon the fullest support of his own people, but confidently expected to win over to his side the very soldiers who were sent to destroy him. How deep must have been his grief, how sore his mortification, at the sad failure of his effort.

When our own Rebellion broke out, Frederick Hecker hastened to the defense of his adopted country with a full regiment of men enlisted by himself. The Eighty-second Illinois, or the Hecker regiment, as it was called, composed principally of German soldiers, did credit to itself and to its commander throughout the war, from which he returned at its close, with a severe wound, and crippled for life.

The honest sincerity and enthusiastic fervor with which he performed his duties, and which frequently assumed a degree of energy bordering on vehemence, led him occasionally into ludicrous and embarrassing situations.

At the re-election of Abraham Lincoln, in the fall of 1864, Hecker ordered his regiment out in full dress, armed and equipped, and marched the men to the polls, with bayonets fixed, drums beating, and colors flying; and the soldiers voted for "Old Abe" to a man. When Mr. Lincoln, who had known Hecker well as a neighbor in Illinois, heard of this he felt greatly annoyed, and sent for him,

and remonstrated with him for committing such a flagrant breach of propriety. Hecker quite seriously and earnestly contended that there was nothing wrong in his conduct; if it was proper to vote at all, it could not be improper to do it in good style; and, as a justifying precedent, he told Mr. Lincoln that in the days of ancient Rome the legions always emphasized their suffrage by striking their brazen shields with their swords. But honest "Old Abe" did not seem to appreciate the application and failed to see the similarity between a regiment of Suckers from Western Illinois and a Roman legion; nor would he admit the semblance between himself and an imperial Cæsar.

After Hecker's return from his four years' service in the army, he found that the quiet life on the farm no longer agreed with him; his crippled condition interfered with his occupation, and the idle hours dragged heavily. For a season he sought relief and diversion in a lecturing tour, but met with indifferent success; the subjects chosen for his discourses, although treated with consummate, scholarly skill, were not adapted to his audiences; his place was the tribune, not the platform.

Shortly after the Franco-German war Hecker made a visit to his old home in Germany, where he was enthusiastically received by his former friends and neighbors, with whom he rejoiced heartily over the final realization of his hopes, the recently-accomplished unification of Germany.

After his return to America he gradually retired from active life; the infirmities of old age, attended sometimes with intense suffering, crept on apace, and he died a few years ago at his country home, near Belleville, honored by all who ever knew him, for his uncompromising honesty and his sterling integrity.

LORENZ BRENTANO, who occupied, during the insurrection of 1848, the position of President of the Provisional Government, and who still lives in Chicago, was born at Mannheim, in the Grand Duchy of Baden, in 1813. He received a classical education, studied jurisprudence at Heidelberg and Freiburg, and after graduating practiced law before the Supreme Court of the State. He first distinguished himself as leading counsel for the defense in the celebrated state trial against Gustave von Struve, for high treason. After attaining the legal age he was elected to the Chamber of Deputies, where he soon became the recognized leader of the opposition party.

In 1848 he was elected to Parliament, and after the outbreak in 1848 he became President of the Revolutionary Government, for which he was condemned *in contumaciam* to imprisonment for life. After his emigration to this country he settled upon a farm in Kalamazoo County, Michigan; in 1859 he removed to Chicago and commenced the practice of law; in 1862 he served as a member of the Illinois Legislature, and after the expiration of his term he became a member of the Chicago Board of Education.

He was a delegate, in 1868, to the National Republican Convention which nominated Grant and Colfax, before which time he was also editor-in-chief and principal proprietor of the *Illinois Staats Zeitung*. In 1869 he took advantage of the general amnesty and paid a visit to his native country, from which he returned to recover what was left of his property by the great Chicago fire.

From 1871 to 1876 he served as United States Consul at Dresden, and afterwards was elected to the 45th Congress as a member from the Chicago City District.

I happened to be present in the winter of 1848 at a

very amusing and somewhat exciting scene, in which Brentano played a conspicuous part. In the course of a speech, which he delivered on this occasion in Parliament, he alluded in rather disrespectful language to the Crown Prince of Prussia (the late Emperor), who had just then returned from his short exile in England, when a young aristocratic member, a nobleman of high rank, took exceptions to Brentano's remarks, and in a greatly excited manner challenged him right there and then for daring to insult the brother of his King. Brentano looked calmly at his assailant, and said in a quiet and dignified tone: "Well, if this little case between the Prince and myself is to be settled by proxy, I will send my coachman to fight you; what time would it suit you to meet him?"

CARL SCHURZ, on account of his superior education, and by virtue of his unquestioned talent and great natural ability, has become the foremost representative German in America. The self-sacrificing devotion which he displayed, when, after having safely escaped capture, he bravely risked his own life in the rescue of his imprisoned friend, Gottfried Kinkel, called forth the exercise of the highest courage and the most heroic perseverance.

At the commencement of the Revolutionary movement in 1848, Schurz was a student at the University of Bonn, where his friend, Professor Kinkel, was reading lectures on literature. The outbreak in 1849 brought both to the seat of war, where Kinkel enlisted in Willich's corps of volunteers, and fell, during the battle at Rastadt, into the hands of the Prussians, dangerously wounded. Schurz served as aide to Frederick Anneke, who had assumed command of the artillery in the fortress. After the retreat of the army from the field around Rastadt, the fortress was

invested and besieged, and finally capitulated. But during the night preceding the final surrender, Schurz made his escape through sewers and ditches and crossed the Rhine in safety. Kinkel, who was a Prussian subject and soldier, and who had been captured while fighting against the army of his sovereign, was sentenced to be shot, and would have been executed if he had not been rescued by Schurz's daring effort. They finally landed in England, where Kinkel remained; but Schurz soon came to America and settled at Watertown, in Wisconsin. His general ability, especially his eloquence, soon brought him into prominence, and as early as 1856 he carried by storm such far-famed masters of oratory as Sumner and Wendell Phillips by a speech which he made at a banquet in Boston. In 1860 he was a delegate to the National Convention which nominated Lincoln, whom he ardently supported during that memorable canvass which resulted in his election. After the inauguration, Schurz was appointed Minister to Spain, which office he soon resigned to take a command in the army. His military service, although not distinguished for any particularly remarkable achievements, has been uniformly honorable and creditable. In August, 1862, he commanded the Third Division of Sigel's First Corps during Pope's campaign at Manassas. In May, 1863, he fought at Chancellorsville at the head of a division in the Eleventh Corps; in July of the same year he was at Gettysburg, where he assumed temporary command of the entire Eleventh Corps, when General Howard, after Reynolds' death, was placed in charge of the First, Third and Eleventh Corps combined; on the first day of that battle Schurz displayed great personal courage in attempting to rally the routed troops of his corps, and on the second day he

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repulsed a fierce attack of the rebels upon Cemetery Hill, where his headquarters were.

Transferred with General Hooker, to the West, he fought before Chattanooga in September, and in November took part in the storming of Missionary Ridge.

After the close of the war he was sent by President Johnson, together with Generals Grant and Thomas, upon a commission of inspection into the Southern States, to report upon their condition and ascertain the sentiments of the people. During his term in the United States Senate he gave offense to the ultra-Republicans by his open advocacy of a conciliatory policy towards the South; his speeches on the San Domingo Treaty and on the German Arms question were masterpieces of brilliant oratory and logical argument. As a Cabinet Minister during the uneventful administration of President Hayes, he conducted the affairs of his department on plain but strict business principles, and left the public service with the undisputed reputation of being an honest man. He has been a strong advocate of a civil service in the United States exempt from political influence. Forty years after his escape from Prussian justice he returns to Berlin, and is received with distinction by the Prime Minister of Prussia—Prince Bismarck.

**ALEXANDER SCHIMMELPFENNIG.** The secret agitations which for a number of years preceded the final outbreak in Baden, extended in some few instances among the officers of the Prussian army. The principal centers of this movement were in Westphalia and among the garrisons along the Lower Rhine; the officers of the artillery regiments stationed in Cologne, Wesel, Münster and Minden were especially affected. Some of the officers of the infantry

also caught the contagion. As the movement spread, it became more and more difficult to maintain secrecy ; discoveries were made by spies and detectives, followed by peremptory dismissals of some and the forced resignation of others. The Seventh Regiment of Artillery was almost dismembered by dismissals of its officers during the years of 1846 and 1847. Among them were August Willich, Joseph Weidemeyer and Frederick Anneke.

Among the infantry officers who left the service about that time was Alexander Schimmelpfennig. He had been a lieutenant in the Twenty-ninth Regiment of Infantry, stationed in the City of Coblenz. He was then quite young, short and lithe of stature, blonde and fair, aggressive, combative, a little haughty, but genial, and quite dashing, the very picture and ideal of the sub-lieutenant of the Prussian army. His silky, cream-colored mustache was curled up defiantly at both ends, and he carried his dimpled chin high up in the air. After a few days he was assigned by the Provisional Government of Trans-Rhenish Bavaria to the command of some of the regular troops who had gone over to the Revolutionary side, and of the volunteers who were flocking in from all parts of the country, and which he stationed along the Prussian frontier, with headquarters at Zweibrücken. While Schimmelpfennig drilled his recruits, Engineer Becker assisted Dr. Weiss in collecting the revenue from the adjacent coal mines and salt works, by a process so expeditious and prompt that it could properly be classed under the head of "direct taxation." This lasted for about three weeks, but one fine morning two Prussian columns marched over the border, under the command of the Crown Prince of Prussia, scattered Schimmelpfennig's regulars and volunteers, and while he was trying to check the rout, a Prussian rifle ball pierced his leg.

Kaiserin Augusta.  
Empress Augusta.



In the Spring of 1861 he enlisted a German regiment for the war, and served as colonel under Sigel in the Army of the Potomac during the campaign of Gen. Pope; fought bravely at Groveton, and was promoted for gallantry at the second battle of Bull Run. At Chancellorsville he commanded the first brigade of Schurz's Division of the Eleventh Corps. At Gettysburg he commanded Schurz's Division on the first day, and fought with distinction upon Cemetery Ridge on the second day of that battle. In February, 1864, he was sent to St. John's Island, in Charleston Harbor, and in February, 1865, he entered that rebellious city at the head of his division, the first Union soldier to set foot upon its streets since the firing on Sumter.

His health had become seriously impaired during the last year of the war, and he died from the effects of his exposures in the swamps of South Carolina, in September, 1865, at Minersville, Pa.

FREDERICK KAPP. But the brightest, most genial and truly lovable character of all was Frederick Kapp. He was born in the town of Hamm, in the Prussian Province of Westphalia, where his father was principal of the Gymnasium, as the German colleges are called. Whoever has traveled through that part of Germany, must have been attracted by the singular beauty and physical perfection of its people. Tall of stature, muscular and erect in carriage, with rosy cheeks and fair complexions, clear blue eyes and curling hair of golden hue, the very peasants are models of statuesque beauty and grace; and of this type, Kapp was a superior specimen.

Full of health and manly strength, his kindly eyes fairly aglow with merriment and good humor, he delighted to tell his jolly stories and deliver his witty sallies in that

peculiar lisping Westphalian accent, which to a Southern German has always a peculiar charm. His features were clear-cut, regular and expressive of strength and character, but his good-natured smile secured him at first sight the lasting friendship of all; nor did the deep-cut scar on his right cheek, a relic of his Heidelberg University days, mar in the least his handsome face.

Completing at an early age his college studies under the immediate tuition of his excellent father, he studied jurisprudence first at Heidelberg and then at Berlin, where he also served his military time as volunteer in the Artillery of the Guard. He had just been assigned to duty as a young advocate of the Superior Court in his native town of Hamm when the Revolution of 1848 broke out in Paris and spread over Germany with lightning speed. After taking an active part in the agitation preceding the elections, he took up his residence in Frankfurt at the assembling of Parliament in that city, where he remained as correspondent for some of the leading journals of the day, until the bloody insurrection in September, during which Count Lychnovski and Baron von Auerswald, reactionary members of Parliament, were killed, when he found it prudent to remove to Paris, which was just then beginning to be agitated by the movement which resulted in the election of Louis Napoleon as President in the following December.

During the winter of 1848 and 1849, Kapp remained in Paris, engaged as correspondent for various journals and contributor to several German periodicals.

In May and June, 1848, while the Revolutionists were in the field in Southern Germany, Kapp came over once or twice, but did not take any active part in that cam-

paign; but after its disastrous conclusion, he escaped to Geneva, and lived in the family of the famous Russian revolutionist, Alexander Herzen, whose literary works he prepared for publication, while at the same time, he was entrusted with the education of Herzen's young son. Early in 1850 he came to New York, where he first engaged in literary work, publishing among other works a clear and concise history of slavery in the United States, which little volume contributed largely to the enlightenment of the German population on this important topic, which just then occupied such a large share in the political affairs of this country. He wrote the lives of Baron Steuben and De Kalb, both of which were translated into English, and obtained quite an extensive circulation. Later, when he had been appointed Commissioner of Emigration, he wrote a general history of emigration, which contains much interesting statistical information.

Kapp returned to his native country about the time of the Franco-German war, and was soon afterward elected to the Imperial Parliament, in which he served with credit to himself, and to the recognized satisfaction of his constituents, until the time of his death, about three years ago.

AUGUST WILlich. Among the Prussian officers who were dismissed for participation in political movements, was Captain August Willich, of the Seventh Regiment of Artillery. He was of noble birth, and the descendant of a long line of soldiers distinguished for bravery in the military service of their country. In the Spring of 1848, he joined the forces under Hecker, in Baden, and, after a short exile in France, he returned in September with Gustave Struve, for a second attempt, and after the failure of that invasion, he retired with a number of his men to

the town of Besançon, on the western slope of the Jura Mountains, which here form the boundary between Switzerland and France. Here he organized his fellow exiles into a military company, and drilled them as only he could drill. When the general uprising took place in May, 1849, Willich reported promptly for duty with his body of refugees, veterans in rebellion, and took a prominent part in the two days' engagement at Rastadt. After the retreat of the army into Switzerland, Willich again retired to Besançon, but was soon compelled by the French Government to leave; whereupon he embarked for England some time in 1850, and after a year or two came to America, where he found employment in one of the engineering parties of the Coast Survey. Subsequently he came to Cincinnati, and engaged in journalism. At the outbreak of our own Civil War, Willich enlisted at once in Robert McCook's Ninth Ohio Regiment, which was largely composed of soldiers trained in the armies of Germany. He was appointed Adjutant, and when that regiment left Camp Dennison for the seat of war in West Virginia, there was not its equal among the volunteer forces in the service for general efficiency. While engaged in the West Virginia campaign, Willich attracted the attention of Governor Morton, of Indiana, who offered him the Colonelcy of the Thirty-second Regiment of Infantry from that State, which he accepted, and in command of which he remained until promoted to a higher rank.

It is no exaggeration to say, that, as a soldier, Willich was perfection itself, and it is no disparagement, for it is but the simple truth, to add, that he was absolutely unfit for anything else. It was inspiring to see him draw his sword and it was positively humiliating to see his awk-



**Reichskanzler Fürst Otto von Bismarck.**  
**Prince Otto von Bismarck, Chancellor of the realm.**

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ward attempts at the performance of the simplest duties of ordinary life. He fought at Perryville under Alexander McCook; at Stone River he was captured, in consequence of his anxiety to report personally to his chief the movements of some rebel troops on his flank, which led him to ride to headquarters alone, and his running straight into the enemy's lines on his return. At Mumfordsville, the superior training of his regiment enabled it to resist, though scattered out in skirmish line, a sudden and very fierce attack of a regiment of Texas Rangers, killing its Colonel and repulsing the troopers with heavy loss. This little fight is described as one of the most brilliant achievements of the war.

Willich arrived at Shiloh in command of the Thirty-second Indiana early on Monday morning, and at once made a gallant attack on the enemy, but met with stubborn resistance. Finding that under the heavy fire some of his men began to lose self-control, he stepped in front, and for fully ten minutes drilled them in the manual of arms, as he said, to cool them off, and make them steady, and then continued the fight.

It is sufficient to say, that at Chickamauga he was with Thomas. In one of the engagements near Atlanta he received a severe wound in his upper right arm, which disabled him for active service, and upon his partial recovery, he was placed in command of the post of Cincinnati, where he remained until the close of the war. He left the army a Brigadier-General.

Having saved something, and being of frugal habits, he managed to live abroad for several years after the war, attending lectures on philosophy at the University in the same city of Berlin where, nearly fifty years before, he

had studied the science of war as a youthful cadet. Upon his return to this country he settled in the quiet little village of Saint Marys, Ohio, near some old friends of his soldier days, and pursued, with the enthusiasm of a school-boy, the studies he had commenced at the Berlin University, spending his leisure in frolicsome plays with the children of the village, whose dearest friend he was.

One night he retired in good health and spirits, and the next morning he was missed by the children at the play-ground. He had died during the night, apparently without a struggle.

CARL HEINZEN was a distinguished journalist and an accomplished writer of wonderful force and influence; concise and clear in his statements, logical and convincing in his arguments, bitter and fierce in his denunciations, and relentless in his persecution; a severe, uncompromising critic — a man to be admired, but feared rather than loved.

His prolific pen had kept the German censors busy for many years prior to the Revolution. Most of his publications were confiscated, on general principles, as soon as they left the press, unless they had already been seized by the police in the composing room.

Physically, he was a man of gigantic frame, six feet or more in height, able-bodied and strong; but there was no fight in him. He seemed to feel that his pen was mightier than his sword, and he preferred to attack the enemy at long range with fierce pronouncements and soul-stirring harangues; but never a drop of blood would he spill — neither the enemy's nor his own; and while the rest of the rebels fought and then ran away in order to live and fight some other day, Heinzen, who had never fought at

all, ran away with the others, but evidently more with a view of saving his life for the time being than with the intention of renewing the fight at some future day.

During his refuge in Geneva, he lived at Grand Pré, on the hedge-lined road to Petit-Sacconnex, near the county-seat of Albert Galere, whose hospitable house was made the cheerful home for many a wanderer during the dreary winter of 1849. At a little cabaret, where the red wine from Tessin and the purple-tinted *mélange* from Canton de Vaux were sold so cheap that even the poverty-stricken members of the so-called "Brimstone Club," could afford to drink them on credit, Heinzen was a frequent guest.

He reached New York, after a short stay in England, during the year 1851, and after publishing a newspaper in that city for a few years, he moved to Boston, where he continued its publication with considerable success, until the time of his death, about nine years ago.

**OSWALD OTTENDORFER.** When Oswald Ottendorfer came to Kaiserslautern in May, 1849, to offer his services to the Provisional Government, he wore the uniform of the Academic Legion of the University of Vienna, where he had been a student, and where he had taken part in the insurrection of the previous year and in the more recent movements in concert with Kossuth's operations in Hungary. He served during the ensuing campaign in Southern Germany as a volunteer, and eventually became, like all the rest, an exile in Switzerland, whence he emigrated to America some time in 1850. Peddling, in utter want and sheer desperation, baskets of gorgeously-labeled beverages of doubtful composition, was the first occupation Ottendorfer engaged in. But fortune never smiled upon a

worthier and more deserving man. His newspaper, the *New York Staats Zeitung*, has an immense circulation, and is read by the German people without distinction of party; its democratic spirit, and the great ability with which it is edited, form a pleasing contrast with the prevailing journalism of the day, while the high personal character of its publisher, and his acknowledged sterling integrity are a source of pride to his immediate countrymen, and his genial, tender-hearted kindness is the pleasure and delight of his numberless friends and acquaintances.

**BLENKER.** Blenker appears to have been a soldier of fortune from earliest youth. When a mere boy he served as a volunteer in Greece, during her heroic struggle of deliverance from the yoke of the Turks. During the Summer of 1848 he drilled a militia company in the town of Worms, famous for its cathedral and for that memorable trial in which Luther told his judges, "if this is the work of men, it will crumble to pieces of its own accord, but if it is the work of God, it is vain for you to oppose it." And when, in May, 1849, the news reached Blenker of the flight of the Grand Duke of Baden, he promptly marched his militia company up the river to Ludwigshafen and seized the little garrison at the Bavarian end of the bridge which crosses the Rhine at Mannheim. He was a dashing fellow, sitting well in the saddle, too proud to be anything but brave. He made a bold attempt on one bright Sunday morning to storm the Fortress of Landau, but after receiving a few rounds of grape shot from the ramparts of the fort, he reconsidered his plan and concluded to let Landau alone. He commanded, as well as any one could command such a body, a large force of heterogeneous volunteers,



**Generalfeldmarschall Graf Helmuth von Moltke.**  
**General Field Marshall Count Helmuth von Moltke.**



and his energetic, pale-faced little wife rode by his side through all that campaign, from Zweibrucken, on the line between France and Bavaria, through the Palatinate, across the Rhine, down to Mannheim, back to Rastadt and over the shady hills of the Black Forest, and past the Rhine into Switzerland.

Just where Blenker spent the short interval between the close of the war of 1849 and his arrival in New York in 1851, is not known, but after that, the dairy farm which he cultivated in Orange County, on the Hudson, where free buttermilk and aromatic cheese were dispensed in most generous measures to his visiting friends, was his abiding place.

He evidently was on hand again promptly in 1861, for we read of his covering the retreat from Bull Run toward Washington. Early in 1862 he commanded a division during the operations of the army in the Shenandoah Valley, but during the latter part of the war his health failed, and he died before its final conclusion.

JOSEPH WEYDEMEYER was one of those obnoxious Prussian artillery officers whose resignations were demanded somewhere in 1847. In 1848 he was employed on the Cologne-Minden Railroad as engineer. After the defeat of the revolutionary movements in 1849, he came to New York, where he engaged in journalistic enterprises, settled subsequently in Milwaukee, and returned to New York in 1860, under an appointment as engineer of the Central Park Commission. In 1861 he enlisted under Fremont, in St. Louis, where at first he took charge of the fortifications in that vicinity, and afterward received a Lieutenant-Colonel's commission in the Second Regiment of Missouri Artillery, in which capacity he spent a long

time in Western Missouri, fighting the guerrillas and bushwhackers. Toward the close of the war he commanded the Forty-first Regiment of Missouri Infantry, and was also Commander of the post of St. Louis.

In 1886 he was elected Auditor of St. Louis County, but he had barely entered upon his duties when he died of cholera, in the prime of his life.

MAX WEBER, who had been a Lieutenant in the Army of Baden, and his comrade, Schwarz, who parted from his father when the latter followed the Grand Duke into exile, both performed gallant services in our army during the War of the Rebellion. Weber commanded a brigade in General Sedgwick's division of Sumner's Second Corps at the battles of Fredericksburg and Antietam, and the bravery of Schwarz's battery of artillery during Grant's operations around Fort Donaldson and Vicksburg is honorably mentioned in the official reports of that campaign.

Besides these few, whose lives have been briefly sketched, there have been and still are hundreds of others, scattered throughout all parts of this Western World, pursuing in modest ways their humble vocations, yet adding, to the best of their ability, their honest share to its material development and intellectual improvement.

A few years more, and the last exile of '49 will have found refuge in the great asylum where extradition laws are unknown, and where, it is hoped, he will not be compelled to serve a probationary term prior to his full admission to citizenship. But his children and his children's children will live on, assimilated, absorbed and Americanized, unmindful of their origin and indifferent to their descent.

Thus, even the patriotic impulses of the German people for the possession of their inalienable rights, was suffocated in the blood of their most devoted sons. If the principles laid down in the American Declaration of Independence are based upon immutable truth, the uprising of the peoples of Europe against their oppressors in 1848 was as justifiable as the American Revolution against England's despotism, and the hanging of the leading American patriots in case of failure, would not have been more inhuman and unjustifiable than the butchering of the German patriots at Rastadt and elsewhere. In this case, the resistance to overcome was so insignificant, that Prince William could well have afforded to be magnanimous. However, peoples have short memories of past grievances, and the ghastly performances of 1849 have long since been effaced, if not condoned, by the glorious achievements of Prince William, who was alone held responsible for them. All these things are now forgotten, and the worst hated man in Berlin in 1848, became the most beloved and honored man throughout Germany in 1888.

The period preceding the Revolution of 1848-9 was one in which the intellectual activity and advancement of the Germans kept pace with that of every other nation, and in some respects outstripped them. Numerous scientific discoveries of practical utility infused new life into commercial and industrial enterprises. Professor Liebig gave a new impetus to researches in the branches of Natural Science and Chemistry, and Hegel gave to the philosophical world food for all ages of reflection, while the studies of the Grimm Brothers in the field of ethnological, religio-historical, and jurisprudence of the ancients, have challenged the admiration of the whole scholastic world. Among the

celebrated historians of the period were Ranke, Schlosser, Rotteck and Frederick von Raumer. Of an army of poets the following names are most familiar to the reader: Uhland, Rockert, Immermann, Heine, Hahn, Freiligrath and Hinkel. In no other country in the world has music made such rapid progress as in Germany during these revolutionary years. The names of Beethoven, Von Weber, Schubert, Meyerbeer, Mendelssohn and Bartholdy are household friends wherever the harmony of sounds is cultivated, while the names of Germany's painters and sculptors are legion.

It was in the year 1850 that success crowned the efforts of the King to come to some understanding with his people. After months of difficulty and disquietude, a new Constitution was published on the second day of February. This instrument defined the powers of King and Parliament and the duties of the Ministers of the Crown. Although many modifications were subsequently made, it formed the basis of the Constitution as now by law established. A Representative Chamber, as well as a House of Peers, was provided for, and a great advance was made in the direction of universal suffrage, so that it may be said the Revolution accomplished this much for a short time in the way of progress.

As previously stated, the peace of Malmö did not intend to permanently adjust the Schleswig-Holstein difficulty, and in March, 1849, war against Denmark was renewed by the Duchies supported by German troops. The Danes were defeated at Kolding, the allies pursuing them to the fortifications of Fredricia. But for prudential reasons the war was not carried on with vigor by Prussia, and another armistice was agreed upon at Berlin and

placed under a council presided over by an Englishman. A peace was concluded, and the Duchies returned to Danish rule. The people, however, rejected the treaty, and resolving to rely upon their own strength, they marched their whole force of 29,000 men, under General Willisen, to Idstadt, where they were met and defeated by the Danes. Although suffering a loss of 6,000 killed the Danes refused to submit. The German Diet supported by Russia now ordered a cessation of hostilities, and Austrian troops were sent into the Duchies to enforce the order.

In the meantime, King Frederick William IV. of Prussia had made an ineffectual effort to organize a new German union, of which the three kingdoms of Prussia, Saxony and Hanover should form the nucleus. But Austria, having suppressed the revolution at home, was stronger than ever before, while her foreign affairs had been intrusted to the hands of an ardent and aggressive minister, an inveterate enemy of Prussia, Prince Schwarzenberg. This statesman was not only determined to defeat all attempts at separate organization of the smaller States under the leadership of Prussia, but to destroy, if possible, her influence in the affairs of Germany. Events as they transpired seemed to favor Schwarzenberg's plans. In the electorate of Hesse the people were engaged in a struggle for Constitutional reform against their reactionary prince, who was ably assisted by his unscrupulous minister, Hasenpflug. The King having repeatedly violated the Constitution, the representatives refused to vote the budget, whereupon the Prince declared the country under martial law. But the troops stood by the representatives, refusing to break their allegiance to the Constitution. The Prince now appealed to the Diet, when Austria

and Bavaria sent troops to assist him. Prussia now marched troops into Cassel, and it appeared as if the decisive moment between Austria and Prussia for the mastery in Germany was at hand. Austria increased her armament in Bohemia, and Prussia made great military preparations. The Minister of Foreign Affairs, Count Brandenburg, was dispatched to the Czar at Warsaw to influence this potentate in Prussia's favor, but instead of bread he was tendered a stone. The Count was received by the Czar with the most impudent demands. Prussia was asked to undo everything she had done toward favoring more liberal institutions in Germany.

These audacious demands, and the grossly abusive manner in which they were made, so affected the brave Count Brandenburg as to cause nervous prostration, from which he died in the following month of November.

Otto von Manteuffel having succeeded Brandenburg at the head of foreign affairs in Prussia, it soon became apparent that the policy of political retrogression had now fairly begun, and that Prussia's complete submission to Austrian and Russian dictation was only a question of time.

The first step in this direction was the departure of Minister Manteuffel for Olmütz on the 29th of November, where he met Prince Schwarzenberg, the Austrian premier. Then the political surrender of Prussia took place, Manteuffel most graciously acceding in writing to all the demands made upon Count Brandenburg by the Czar, and promising to carry out the reactionary programme of robbing the Prussian people of their achievements as far as lay in his power.

On the 12th of June, 1851, the Diet, which the people of Germany had long since believed to be defunct, again

assembled. The representatives of the German sovereignties seemed to vie with each other in eagerness to destroy the last vestige of political progress made during the few years after the Revolution, and to re-establish the same order of things that had prevailed previous to March, 1848.

In this assembly of notables sat a man representing the interests of King Frederick William IV., of Prussia, who appeared to care very little what the fate of the German Confederation should be as long as its destinies were controlled by the Hapsburg Dynasty. In his estimation, the concern was as rotten as could be, and the sooner it disappeared, in its prevailing condition at least, the better for Germany in general, and for Prussia in particular. Although not making himself over-conspicuous, he was a close observer of the Diet's proceedings. In the fall of 1853, this Prussian delegate, in private letters to his sister, Mrs. Von Armin, wrote the following sarcastic lines, highly characteristic of him, showing the estimate in which the German Confederation of States was held by him :

"I have accustomed myself to remain in a stato of yawning innocence; to bear, all unnoticed, symptoms of coldness, and to allow a state of mind of the utmost indifference to govern me since the occasion when, I flatter myself, I was enabled, in no small degree, to successfully contribute towards impressing upon the Bund (Confederation) a consciousness of its own insignificance. That well-known song of Heine, "*O du Bund, du Hund, du bist nicht gesund*," etc. ("Oh Bund, thou Hound, thou art not sound"), will soon be declared by unanimous consent, to be the national anthem of the Germans.

"Your true brother,

(VON BISMARCK.)

"V. B."

Also, in the following letter, written on the 11th of September, 1856, Herr von Bismarck shows that he was fully cognizant of Austria's anti-German and perfidious diplomatic manœuvring.

"In November, I fancy the Bund will dedicate its sittings to the Holsteiners, and with more good will than success. On the above subject the several governments will be outwardly unified. Austria, however, will remain in secret the friend of the Danes, and in her press will have her mouth full of German phrases, and place the fault on Prussia that nothing is done. The center of gravity in this matter is, in fact, not at Frankfort, but in whether the Danes are sure of support from one or more of the non-German powers. If this is the case they will discover a legal flaw in the decision of the Bund.

"V. B."

Upon this one point, however, the two rival powers—Prussia and Austria—agreed perfectly, to-wit: upon the question of a repressive policy at home, and to support any measure brought forward framed for the purpose of curtailing the rights already secured to the people of the different States.

Thus, what wonder that the people of Germany began to look upon this assemblage of royal bosses, first with distrust, then with indifference, and finally with supreme contempt.

A noted historian describing the condition of political affairs in Germany at this time says:

"Austrian influence was again in the ascendant in Germany, and was unscrupulously used for purposes which recall the time of Ferdinand II. The Austrian Constitution was abolished, and every German monarch, who



Decorated by the Crown Prince, with the order "pour le mérite", upon the battle field of Königgrätz.



undertook reactionary measures, was sure of support from Austria and the Confederation. The power of Rome and of the Jesuits was restored. At the same time, Austria maintained a defiant and hostile tone toward Prussia; strove to bind to itself the smaller States, and even to weaken and dissolve the Zollverein — the last bond of German union left in Prussia's hand. The people of the smaller German States seemed indifferent to these jealousies of the great Powers. Prussia took no part in the war of France and England against Russia, from 1853 to 1855, having no reason for hostility to that Empire. Austria finally joined the Western Powers, and her threatening attitude hastened Russia's consent to humiliating terms of peace. Prussia was now checked in the path of her growth and progress, in which she had been moving on from the accession of Frederick William IV. The Constitution, indeed, was not overthrown, but the people were full of suspicion and discontent. The disgrace of the surrender at Olmütz was felt as a second Jena.

“During the time of Manteuffel's reactionary regime, Prince Wilhelm of Prussia had withdrawn from public view. He did not agree with the inexcusable, illiberal course of this Minister. In fact, he had publicly declared that he was in favor of maintaining, in good faith, the privileges guaranteed to the people by the Constitution. But his principal care was given to the army, the organization and perfection of which he watched with intense solicitude. On the 1st of January, 1867, shortly before entering upon the sixtieth year of his age, he celebrated the fiftieth anniversary of his service in the Prussian army. During this period of his retirement, a pleasant event enlivened the private circle of his family. On the 20th

of September, 1856, his daughter Louisa was wedded to the Crown Prince of Baden, and in July the following year his son 'Fritz,' the present Emperor, was betrothed to Princess Victoria of Great Britain. Lord Palmerston considered that such a union would unquestionably be to the interests of the two countries immediately concerned and of Europe in general. In her Journal, the Queen gives the following interesting account of the betrothal, under date of September 29, 1855: 'Our dear Victoria was this day engaged to Prince Frederick William of Prussia, who had been on a visit to us since the 14th. He had already spoken to us, on the 20th, of his wishes; but we were uncertain, on account of her extreme youth, whether he should speak to her himself, or wait till he came back again. However, we felt it was better he should do so, and during our ride up Craig-na-Ban this afternoon, he picked a piece of white heather (the emblem of "good luck") which he gave to her; and this enabled him to make an allusion to his hopes and wishes as they rode down Glen Dirnoch, which led to this happy conclusion.' Prince Albert wrote to Stockmar: 'Vicky has indeed behaved quite admirably, as well during the closer explanation on Saturday, as in the self-command which she displayed subsequently and at the parting. She manifested towards Fritz and ourselves the most childlike simplicity and candor and the best feeling. The young people are ardently in love with one another, and the purity, innocence, and unselfishness of the young man have been on his part equally touching.' "

On the 25th of January, 1858, Prince Frederick was married to the Princess Victoria, the Prince going over to England for the ceremony, which took place in the

Chapel Royal, St. James. Says an English biographer: "When the fair English girl went out to the land of her adoption, never was a Princess received by the Prussians with as much enthusiasm as she. And their first impressions of her have only been confirmed and strengthened by the good and noble life she has since led amongst the people."

Prince Albert and Queen Victoria visited their daughter the next year in Berlin. They met her waiting for them at Potsdam.

After a stay of nearly seven weeks in Germany, her Majesty and the Prince Consort returned to England with feelings of rejoicing over the happiness of their eldest child, and of thankfulness for the cordial understanding which existed between the Courts of St. James and Berlin.

In 1855 the Prince presided over the Army Commission, which decided upon the adoption of the needle-gun throughout the Prussian army. On the 1st of January, in the succeeding year, he celebrated his fifty years of military service, when the King conferred upon him the command of the Seventh Hussars, and gave him as word of honor. The officers of the army, by whom the Prince was held in high esteem, presented him with a massive silver shield, and the veteran old warriors gave him a magnificent silver helmet. The Queen of England, moreover, sent him the insignia of the Bath, by the hands of the gallant Sir Colin Campbell.

While the Prince of Prussia was at Baden in 1857, visiting his daughter, the Grand Duchess, he became acquainted with his future antagonist, Napoleon III.

The Prince's period of political inactivity was soon to

close, however, and the Prussians were soon to have the opportunity of judging whether he was a worthy descendant of the great Elector and the greater King, Frederick the Great.

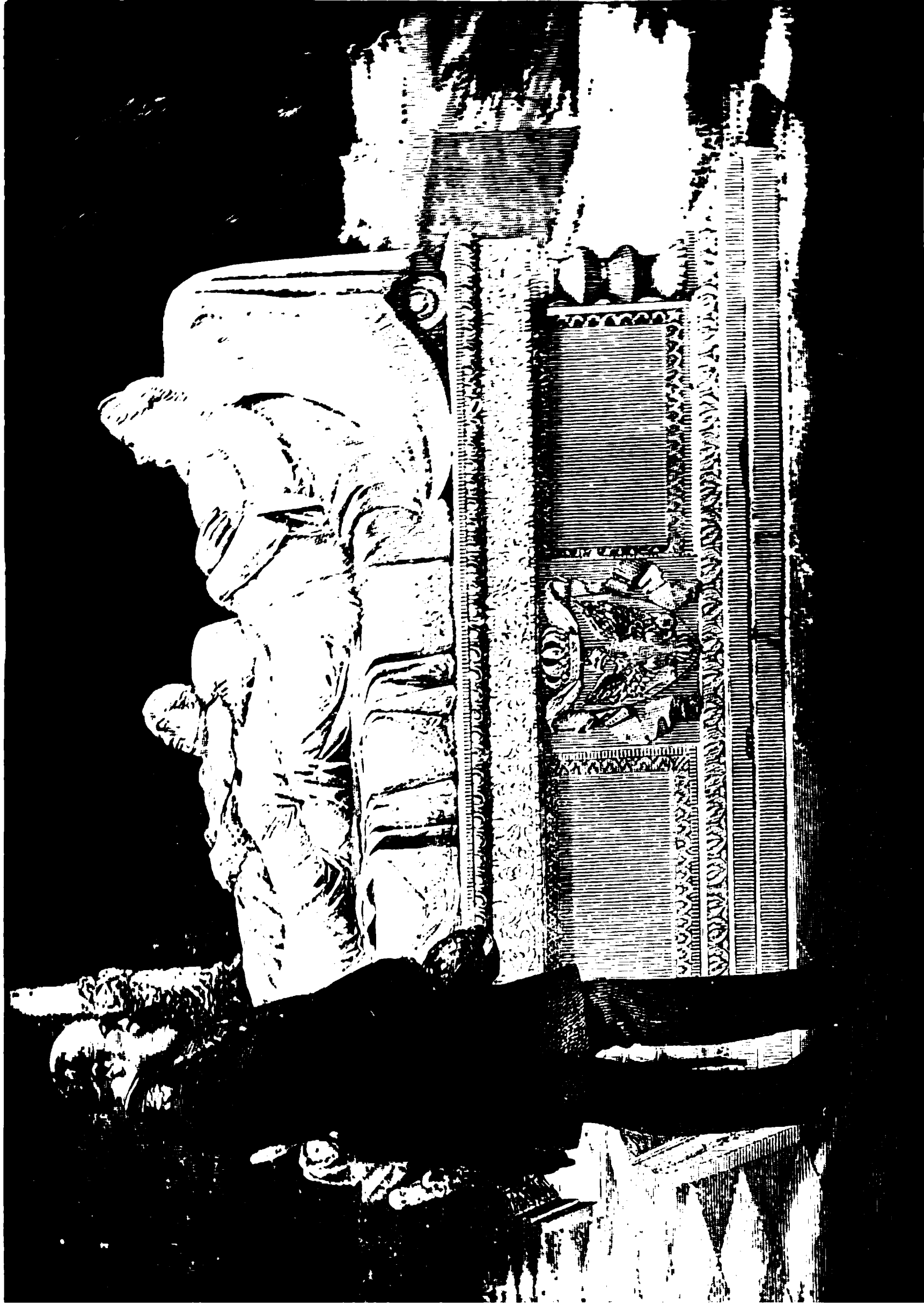
In September, 1857, Frederick William IV., sometimes irreverently called "Campagner-Fritz," was suddenly stricken with paralysis of the brain. As his malady was beyond the help of medical skill, on the 25th of October, 1858, he abdicated and Prince William was made Regent, taking an oath of allegiance to the Prussian Constitution. At the end of this ceremony the Prince expressed himself in the following not-to-be-mistaken language:

"I have taken upon myself the heavy load and responsibility of the Regency, and I have the firm will to continue to perform what the Constitution and the laws exact from me."

In a written address of some length, the Prince Regent defined his position fully concerning the great interests of the state, religion, education, the army, and Prussia's foreign relations, thus:

"In religion there has been many abuses, and both Churches would be strenuously opposed if religion again were to be used as a political cloak. The Evangelical Church has returned to an orthodoxy which is not in harmony with her principles, and that orthodoxy has placed the greatest bar on Evangelical union. The Catholic Church has her rights constitutionally confirmed, but encroachments can no longer be suffered. The education of the States should be so devised that Prussia would become foremost in the intelligence of the world. The army has created the greatness of Prussia, though both the army and the state suffered severely at one time from





**König Wilhelm am Grabe seiner Eltern, am 19. Juli 1870 vor seiner Abreise zur Armee.  
King William at the tomb of his parents on July 19th, 1870, previous to his departure to the Army.**



neglect. The war of emancipation has proved the capabilities of the Prussian armies, but the victories of the past must not dazzle us to blindly overlook the defects of the present. There are many things requiring alteration, which money and time will effect. It would be a grave mistake to be satisfied with merely a cheap army reorganization, which could never realize the expectation of the country at a critical moment. Prussia should be respected, and to that end it is imperative that a powerful army be maintained, so that when the supreme moment comes, she can throw her full weight in the scale. The world must learn to know that Prussia is always ready to protect her rights. A firm and, if necessary, energetic policy, developed with caution and prudence, will procure for Prussia that political respect and power which it would be impossible for her to gain by force of arms alone."

These were the ringing phrases the Prussians had long listened for, and they not only saw the beginning of a new era for their country, but throughout Germany the leaven had begun to work. The Manteuffel ministry was dismissed, and the people expected a man to be placed where he had stood, whose heart, soul, thought, and mind were Prussian. Such a man was being prepared and perfected by the exigencies of the hour. At this time he was a member of the Bund, and writes: "I take a particular pleasure in the Bund; all the gentlemen who, but six months ago, demanded my recall as a necessary condition towards the consummation of German unity, now tremble at the thought of losing me. I say to them all, 'Only keep calm; everything will be all right in time.'"

The first complication of a serious nature, and which but for the cool and deliberate judgment of the Prince

Regent might have involved Prussia in a conflict, were the disputes which arose between the King of Sardinia and the Emperor of Austria in 1859. Popular sympathy in Germany drifted towards Italy, whose people were struggling for liberty and unity, the same as themselves; but when their hereditary foe across the Rhine allied himself with the King of Sardinia, a revulsion of sentiment in favor of Austria took place. Count Cavour, the astute premier of Sardinia, sought to entice Prince William into an alliance with the intimation that, through such a course, Prussia might obtain satisfaction for the humiliation she had suffered in the conference at Olmütz. But in the opinion of the Prince Regent, the time for such revenge, however desirable, had not yet come, and replying to Cavour, "that Prussia must not have her hands tied by treaties at this early stage in the affair," concluded to remain neutral for the time being. The war in Italy having progressed, and appearing to culminate in Austria's overthrow in Lombardy, the matter was taken up in the German Diet, where, after an acrimonious debate, the Austrian delegate introduced the resolution to mobilize the whole federal army and to place the Prussian Prince Regent in command — subject to the control of the Diet, or, in other words, subject to Austria's control. But Prussia declined the honor unless the assisting army should be placed under the Prince Regent's entire control. To this Austria would not consent, and, consequently, the events of the war between Italy and Austria compelled Austria to agree to the terms dictated by Napoleon III. of France, which were signed at Villa Franca, July, 1859. Of course, Prussia was held responsible for this humiliating result, a feeling which naturally increased the animosity already existing between the two Powers.

But impartial history has placed the blame where it properly belongs. A prompt and frank acceptance of German aid under Prussian military leadership, which had been offered, would undoubtedly have spared to Austria the Villa Franca treaty, but she preferred the loss of territory and of prestige in Italy to a victory secured over Napoleon, which might redound to the credit of her hated rival in the affairs of Germany-Prussia. This condition of things was well understood by the Prince Regent, nor was he unmindful of the fact that the appetite of the French for military glory had been sharpened by the victories of Magenta and Solferino, and which they might soon wish to satiate in Germany. William remembered that Russia had of late years assumed the rôle of a military "bully" toward Prussia, and could, therefore, not be relied upon as an ally in the event of a conflict with France. But, above all, he felt the responsibility resting upon him as a member of the German Confederation to spare no pains to increase the power of Prussia; to watch every move of the Powers; to checkmate every advance of her enemies by well-defined and unhesitating counter moves. A powerful military organization must be his chief reliance. The representatives were not in favor of spending enormous sums for this purpose. The Prince Regent was not to be thwarted in this greatest of all ambitions, even at the cost of coercing the people's representatives, if necessary. Accordingly, after a careful examination into the actual condition of the army, it appeared by mobilization that its ranks were composed mostly of heads of families; to be more explicit, two thirds of the troops were thus encumbered. The Prince submitted his plan of reorganization to the House of Representatives, by which this

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state of things could be remedied, but was resisted by a majority of its members, owing to the accompanying increase of expenditures. They all agreed with the Regent that something ought to be done to render the army more effective, but it might be done cheaper, they thought, than in the measure proposed.

One of the German Emperor's biographers forcibly observes that, "the Prince Regent, as soon as he came into power, hastened to prepare his people for the long series of struggles which he foresaw to be inevitable, if Prussia were destined, under his guidance, to achieve her mission in Europe, viz., to take, and keep in such sort that it might never escape her, the leadership of Germany. To this end he drew the whole vigorous youth of the nation into the ranks of the army, and revived that warlike tone in Prussian feeling that had almost died out since the war of emancipation. This martial temper, once aroused, smoothed many difficulties from Prince William's path, after his accession to the throne, and may with truth be said to have ignited the enthusiasm which, blown into a flame by Prussia's first successes in the field, burnt brightly and more brightly throughout the momentous period of transition inaugurated by the campaign of 1864, until, in the spring of 1866, it suddenly burst into a furious blaze, and, annihilating all that stood in its way, swept along with awful might, an irresistible torrent of roaring fire that consumed Prussia's 'favorite foes' and Germany's ancient fetters in one grand and terrible conflagration."



--- MOUNT NAPOLEON III. TO BELLEVUE CASTLE.

## CHAPTER IX.

### PRINCE WILLIAM AS KING WILLIAM I. OF PRUSSIA.

**I**T WAS during the parliamentary wrangle under the regency of William that, on January 1, 1861, the King breathed his last. The following day Prince William ascended the Prussian throne, in his sixty-fourth year, as William I.

The anticipations of the people that the new King would at once enter upon a course of political reforms were not realized; to the contrary, it soon became evident that William was now more than ever determined upon carrying out his cherished plan, to reorganize and strengthen the army; the Chamber, however, remained firm in its refusal to pass a permanent measure for an increase of men and expenditure, and strictly adhered to this opinion, that the two years' term of military service was sufficient to educate the youth in the drill and duties of a soldier. Public sentiment was rapidly drifting away from the new King, and seemed to have reached a culminating point in the attempt upon his life by the young student, Oscar Becker, at Baden-Baden, who afterward declared that his conviction of the King's inability to fulfill Prussia's mission, had impelled him to commit the deed.

In order to disabuse the minds of the people, and of their representatives, that, by conceding to them a Constitution, the Kingly dignity and power, "By the Grace of God," had also suffered some modifications, the antiquated exhibition of a pompous coronation of the King,

with all the splendor of by-gone days, was resolved upon. These coronation ceremonies took place at Königsberg on the 18th of October, 1861. The following is the description of the occasion by an eye-witness :

“The first time I saw the King was when he rode in procession through the ancient city of Königsberg, some two or three days before the coronation. He seemed a firm, dignified, handsome, somewhat bluff old man, with gray hair, and gray mustache, and an expression which if it did not denote intellectual power, had much of cheerful strength and the charm of frank manhood about it. No one was just then disposed to be very enthusiastic about him, but everyone was inclined to make the best of the sovereign and the situation. But the manner in which the coronation ceremony was conducted, and the speech which the King delivered soon after, produced a terrible shock of disappointment, for in each the King manifested that he understood the crown to be a gift, not from the people but from heaven. To me the ceremony in the chapel, splendid and picturesque as it was, the *mise en scène*, appeared absurd and even ridiculous. The King, bedizened in a regal costume, lifting a crown from the altar, and, without intervention of human aid other than his own hands, placing it upon his head, to signify that he had his crown from heaven, not from man ; then putting another crown upon the head of his wife, to show that she derived her dignities from him, and then turning round and brandishing a gigantic sword, as symbolical of his readiness to defend the state and people—all this seemed to me too suggestive of the *opera comique* to suit the simple dignity of the handsome old soldier. Far better and nobler did he look in his military



uniform, and with his spiked helmet, as he sat on his horse in the streets, than when arrayed in crimson velvet cloak and other such stage paraphernalia of conventional royalty.

“‘There is just this to say about him,’ said Earl Clarendon, the British envoy at the coronation, ‘he is an honest man and a man of his word; he is not a Corsican conspirator.’ Yes, this was the character of the King of Prussia; in good and evil he kept his word.

“It is a matter of common notoriety that the acts and words of the King at this crowning ceremony did not impress the people with the deep conviction that his reign would be a Constitutional one; but, to the contrary, they were looked upon as new declarations of absolute rule. Under such circumstances it is not to be wondered at that the people turned away from the ruler they mistrusted, calling upon their leaders to stand between them and a military despot. The next Chamber, which met after the coronation, proved conclusively that these were the prevailing sentiments of the country. A large number of representatives had been elected upon the positive understanding that they were to give support to Government measures only upon condition that the Government would pursue a liberal policy at home and a decided German policy abroad.”

Commenting upon this unseemly effort of the Prussian King, to rejuvenate the exploded doctrine of the Divine right of Kings an English writer says:

“But the King’s enunciation of the Divine right of Kings, and his further announcement that he entered into no obligation to regard the Diet as a Parliament, gave rise to much solicitude in England. The Prince Consort

wrote to Baron Stockmar: 'The speeches of the King of Prussia at Königsberg have produced a bad impression here, and the theory of the Divine right of Kings (apart from being an absurdity in itself, and exploded here for the last two hundred years) is suitable neither to the position and vocation of Prussia, nor to those of the King. The difficulty of establishing united action between Prussia and England has been again infinitely augmented by this royal programme.' "

Upon the assembling of the Prussian representatives in January, 1862, a hostile majority confronted the King, and after a fruitless wrangle between the King's ministry and the representatives of the people over the budget for military expenditures, the House was dissolved by King William, on the 11th of March, and the resignation of the unpopular ministry accepted.

A new ministry, with Prince Hohenlohe as Premier, was called by the King, and instructions given to lay before the voters the urgent necessity of furnishing the government Parliamentary support. These instructions were resented by the people, as undue interference in free elections, and had the very contrary effect, to-wit: that of increasing the majority of the opposition against William in the House. The recommendations of the King were more resolutely resisted than ever, and the arguments of the Ministry were met by a flat refusal to allow an increase in army expenditures. In this emergency, the King's urgent cry for, "A man, a man!" reminds one of King Richard III., when, for a horse he offered half his kingdom. The English King did not get his horse, but the King of Prussia, more lucky, got his man — the man that was to carry him, not only over these Parlia-

mentarian difficulties, but eventually to place him upon the imperial throne of Germany. His name was Otto von Bismarck-Schönhausen. The first time William I met this subject of his was at a Prussian court ball, in 1834, when he was much struck by two youths of lofty stature, who were introduced to him by the Master of the Ceremonies, upon which he pleasantly remarked: "Well, it seems that justice now-a-days recruits her youngsters in conformity to the guard's standard!" The youths were lawyers practicing in the Berlin courts, and the taller of the two was none other than Otto Augustus Leopold von Bismarck. This was the first glimpse which the Kaiser and the Chancellor had of each other.

BISMARCK was born in 1815 and came of a distinguished family some of whom had been prominent military men under the Electors of Brandenburg and the Kings of Prussia. At the age of seventeen he was sent to Göttingen to study law and political economy. A year later he entered the University of Berlin, and in 1835 was admitted to the bar. During the stormy period of 1847 he was a delegate of the Saxon nobility to the Diet, and called the attention of the Germans upon himself by his violent opposition to the demanded reforms of the people.

After the revolution of '48 he attended an assembly of the country nobility called the *Junker* Parliament. From 1849 to '50 he was a member of the second Chamber of the Prussian Diet. He was a strong advocate of increased monarchical powers and the consolidation of the German nationality by the joint action of Austria and Prussia. In 1851 he was appointed by Frederick William IV. Prussian ambassador to the Germanic Diet at Frankfort, when he changed his views in regard to Austria's pretensions and

showed so much opposition that for prudential reasons he was sent as ambassador to Russia, remaining there until 1862, when he was transferred to Paris. Six months after he was recalled, and succeeded Prince Hohenzollern as head of the administration and Minister of Foreign Affairs.

The tone of the liberal press towards him was neither friendly nor complimentary. It soon began to be apparent that if Bismarck could not command their respect he would compel their submission. He foreshadowed his policy in the following language :

“It is not by speechifying and *majorities* that the great questions of the times will have to be decided, but by *blood and iron*.”

His acts followed his words ; for the amounts demanded for the army reorganization having been rejected by the House, at the close of the session Bismarck informed its members, in the name of the King, “that the Budget for the year 1862, as decreed by the Lower Chamber, having been rejected by the Upper Chamber on the ground of insufficiency, the Government of his Majesty is under the necessity of carrying out the Budget as it was originally laid before the Lower House, without taking cognizance of the *conditions prescribed by the Constitution*.”

This declaration, so startling to the country, was nothing more nor less than a plain notice to the people's representatives that the money required would be raised in the usual way by the Government, Chamber or no Chamber, to-wit, in open violation of the Constitution. The same policy was pursued in 1863. The King's speech was read by Bismarck, in which the representatives were reminded that “if by their decisions with regard to the

expenditures they had the right to simply do away with the army organization, also if they had the right to control the relations between the King and his Ministers, they would be *de facto* in possession of complete power of the government of the country." This interpretation of the prerogatives of the Chamber was not however that of the Hohenzollern William, nor of his Prime Minister.

The King's address raised immediate opposition in the Chambers, as well as throughout the country, which resulted in a counter address to the King, in which his Majesty was plainly told, that since the last session his ministers had carried on the government against the Constitution and without a legal Budget; that the supreme right of the representatives of the people had thereby been attacked. The country had been alarmed and had stood by its representatives. Abuses of the power of the Government were now taking place just as in the sad years preceding the Regency. "Your Majesty," they continued, "recently declared that nobody ought to doubt your intention of maintaining the Constitution; but the Constitution has already been violated by the Ministers. Our position imposes on us the most urgent duty of solemnly declaring that peace at home and power abroad can only be restored by the return of the Government to a Constitutional state of things."

The King's reply, "that he recognized the right of the representatives of the people to grant expenditures, but that since they had not come to an agreement, he was in duty bound to carry on the Government without their assistance," did not mend matters. The sessions of the Chambers again become scenes of charges and denials, recriminations and disclamations between the King's

premier and the representatives. Bismarck had become so aggressive as to openly defy the authority of the President of the Chamber. The public press thereupon taking sides with the representatives, Bismarck made it his next object of attack.

During this reactionary course pursued by the King and his Minister, it is a pleasure to refer to the fact that the Crown Prince (present Emperor of Germany) was openly opposed to this plain violation of the Constitution. In a letter written by him to his father, May 31, 1863, he says:

“Expressions which you have lately made use of in my presence, regarding the possibility of forcing your measures upon the country, oblige me to speak out on the subject. On dismissing the Auerswald Cabinet you told me that, being more liberal than yourself, I had now got an opportunity for enacting the usual part of a Crown Prince, to-wit: throwing difficulties in the way of your Government. At that time I promised to maintain silence, and offer no opposition. Intending to keep my promise, as I do, I yet feel it my duty to speak to you in private. I beseech you, my dearest father, not to invade the law in the way you hinted. Nobody is more fully aware than myself that to you an oath is a sacred thing, and not to be trifled with. But the position of a sovereign in regard to his ministers is sometimes very difficult. Skilled as they are in the lawyer's art, and expert at interpretation, they know how to represent a measure as fair and necessary, and by degrees to force a sovereign into a path very different from that which he intended to tread.”

A few days later, on the 3d of June, Bismarck received a letter from the Crown Prince, in which as a mem-







ber of the Council of State, he earnestly protested against the order muzzling the press :

"I deem the proceedings of the Cabinet," the Prince says, "to be both illegal and injurious to the State and the dynasty. I declare the measure to have been taken without my wishing and knowing it, and I protest against any inferences and ascriptions to be possibly based upon my relation to the Council of State."

Having given expression to similar sentiments, in the reply to the address of welcome by the municipal authorities at Dantzic, the King became angry and demanded an apology from his son under the threat of recall and discharge from the army. But the conscientious Frederick was not to be intimidated, nor driven from a position which he believed to be honorable and correct. A lengthy reply to his father closes with the following manly statement :

"I can retract nothing of what I have said. All I can do is to keep silent. Should you wish me to do so, I hereby lay at your feet my commission in the army and my seat in the Council of State. I beg you to appoint me a place of residence, or permit me to select one for myself, either in Prussia or abroad. If I am not allowed to speak my mind, I must naturally wish to dissolve myself from the sphere of politics."

Such courageous expressions from the Crown Prince, at a time of great excitement in his country over his father's disregard of his oath, gives a glimpse of his character at the time. His father, it seems, did not accept his offer, and the death of Frederick VII. of Denmark soon following, which threatened new complications, the affair was allowed to drop out of sight.

Everyone had slumbered in the fanciful hope that the hereditary claim upon the Schleswig-Holstein Duchies had found its final and definite settlement in what was called "The London Protocol," entered into in 1852. It must be remembered that the claims had been purely those of different Princes, without the slightest regard to the 1,000,000 of inhabitants composing these provinces. Three-fourths of them being Germans, with German predilections and aspirations, they naturally sympathized with Germany, and had their inclinations been consulted by the contracting powers in '52, a peaceful incorporation of the Duchies with Prussia, their nearest neighbor, would have been the result. In 1848 this public sentiment had asserted itself by a demand for a union between the two Duchies, independent of Denmark, and by a request upon Germany for military assistance.

This repetition of what has been said before is necessary to a full understanding of this question, which had vexed the ingenuity of European statesmen for nearly a quarter of a century. Under the prevailing conditions the question resolved itself into the simple query, Who shall have the territory?

On the 6th of December, subsequent to the King's death, Christian IX., the new King of Denmark issued his proclamation to the effect that he would maintain the integrity of the Kingdom, including Schleswig-Holstein, with an armed force if necessary. This was a notice to the German Confederation to keep its hands off, which notice was answered by the Frankfort Diet with an order for a contingent of the army of the German Confederation, for the object of occupying the Duchies forthwith. The King of Denmark, expecting the assistance of England

and France, at once occupied the Dannewirke—heretofore considered an impregnable stronghold—with 30,000 men under General Meza. After a severe battle between the Danes and the Germans in February, General Meza was compelled to retreat. In the following month of April the Prussians under the command of Prince Frederick Charles, nephew of King William, took the strongly intrenched “Duppel-works” by assault, causing a loss of 5,000 men to the Danes and capturing 120 guns.

An ineffectual attempt to come to an amicable understanding was made during a six weeks’ armistice, but all overtures being rejected by the King of Denmark, hostilities were again resumed on the 26th of June. On the 29th the Prussians, under Frederick Charles, defeated the Danes between Düppel and the Island of Alsen, inflicting a loss of 4,000 men and 100 guns.

Soon after Jütland was also occupied by Prussian and Austrian troops. This ended the campaign. On the 12th of July the Danish King sued for peace, which was finally concluded in Vienna, and by which the Duchies were unconditionally ceded to Prussia and Austria.

All German troops but those of the latter two powers were now withdrawn from the Duchies, and Austria, keenly appreciating the fact that geographical lines would prevent her from ever reaping substantial benefit from this accession, would have readily consented to follow suit had Prussia consented to cede to her a small portion of Silesia in compensation for her share in the Schleswig-Holstein Duchies. But this proposition was promptly rejected by the King. Other propositions for a compromise which were made reciprocally met the same fate, and in 1865 the tension between the two great

copartners in the Duchy proprietorship had reached the snapping point, and war between Austria and Prussia was only temporarily averted by the convention at Gastein, where the two powers were respectively represented by Bismarck and Count Bloom. The treaty there concluded, and subsequently ratified at Salzburg by the sovereigns of Prussia and Austria, transferred Schleswig to Prussia and Holstein to Austria. In consideration of two and a half million dollars Austria ceded all her rights in the Duchy of Lauenburg to Prussia. The eminent diplomatic services rendered by Bismarck were rewarded by King William with the title of Count. By this treaty Prussia, or rather Germany, had come into possession of a fine piece of territory and a number of excellent harbors in the Baltic.

The English Premier, Earl Russell, gave vent to his disgust at sight of a division of European territory, in which Great Britain had no part, in the following sententious language :

“All rights, old or new, whether based upon a solemn agreement between sovereigns or on the clear and precise expression of the popular will, have been trodden under foot by the Gastein Convention, and the authority of force is the sole power which has been consulted and recognized. Violence and conquest, such are the only bases upon which the dividing Powers have established their Convention. Her Majesty's Government greatly deplores the disregard thus manifested for the principles of public law and the legitimate claim that a people may raise to be heard when their destiny is called into question.”

That this arbitrary division of Schleswig-Holstein was received with jealousy mingled with a feeling of dread



In Versailles am 18. Januar 1871.  
At Versailles on the 18th of January, 1871.



both by France and England, is discernible in the tone of the diplomatic correspondence held at that time between the ministers of foreign affairs of France and of England respectively. A letter from the French Secretary contains the following ebullition of righteous indignation at the amicable arrangement between the two foreign Powers:

“Upon what principle does the Austro-Prussian combination rest? We regret to find no other foundation for it than force, no other justification than the reciprocal convenience of the co-sharers. This is a mode of dealing to which the Europe of to-day has become unaccustomed, and precedents for it must be sought for in the darkest ages of history. Violence and conquest pervert the notion of right and the conscience of nations.”

The cool assurance of this epistle is especially refreshing, coming from a country whose policy is territorial robbery.

But Count Bismarck's time and attention were occupied with too serious matters at home to allow himself to be drawn into lengthy diplomatic controversies with foreign nations. The relative position between the Crown and the people's representatives was as unsatisfactory as ever, and the breach between them seemed to grow wider from day to day.

The Liberal party in Prussia, and in fact all over Germany, seemed to be struck with the blind hallucination that the unification of Germany could only be secured through Austria. They despised and cursed the Bismarck ministry, fervently wishing its downfall, and this sentiment was carefully nursed among the rural population of Southern Germany by the Ultramontane portion of the Catholics. Prussia is troubled with the “big head,” they

said, let us knock it out of her. This hostile sentiment against Prussia, but more especially against Bismarck, had grown to such an intensity that on the 7th of May, 1866, a young man by the name of Blind, son of the well-known Karl Blind, felt himself called upon to "remove the tyrant," an attempt which, fortunately for Germany, was unsuccessful. In the meantime the relations between Prussia and Austria had become strained, owing to some supposed intrigues of the latter in the Schleswig-Holstein principalities. They began charging each other with bad faith in reference to the Gastein stipulations, when Austria, feeling her strength in the German Diet, gave notice to the Prussian Government that she would submit the Schleswig-Holstein question to that federal body for settlement. In the meantime Austria was arming. As early as April, 1866, Count Bismarck had submitted a proposition to the German Diet to issue a call for a German Parliament, based upon universal suffrage; but the proposition had been rejected by all the States except Baden, Mecklenburg-Schwerin, and a few of the smaller Principalities. Under these circumstances both King William and his ministers, deeming it a matter of self-preservation, resolved to look elsewhere for a reliable ally in case of an emergency, and they found one in King Victor Emanuel of Italy. By a secret understanding it was mutually agreed, in case of a war with Austria, not to retire from the conflict until Venice had been secured by Italy and Schleswig-Holstein by Prussia.

On the 14th of June, 1866, the die was to be cast. Peace or war lay in the hands of the German Diet. It decided for war, by agreeing, in spite of Prussia's protest, to entertain the Austrian proposition concerning the ques-



tion of Schleswig-Holstein by a vote of nine to six. After this vote the Prussian representative left the session with the remark that Prussia would now rely upon herself alone.

There was great rejoicing among Austria's adherents, and speculations were rife as to which of them would secure this or that portion of Prussia, when, as it was surely predicted, that Kingdom would be dismembered and parceled out among the victors. Not even France was forgotten in the division of this one German Kingdom, which more than once had stood like a wall against the dismemberment of Germany by foreign enemies.

"These gentlemen are underestimating us," said Bismarck, upon hearing of these prognostications; "the world will be astounded at the power this divided Prussia will develop in an emergency."

And so it happened. The campaign of but a few weeks' duration which followed, was sufficient to bring the victorious banners of Prussia to the very doors of Austria's capital; that long expected moment was near at hand when the King would be able to prove that his indefatigable efforts toward the effectiveness of Prussian arms were an inspiration, and when the cause for his apparently autocratic opposition to the representatives would be understood and his action approved.

Events, as they have since transpired, conclusively demonstrated the fact that Prussian supremacy in Germany was absolutely essential to the unification of the country upon a Constitutional basis.

For centuries the destinies of Germany had been controlled by the Hapsburg dynasty, and what was the result? A divided and oppressed people at home, and a

convenient foot-ball for foreign assumption. Austria, with her reactionary tendencies, and her subserviency to Papal dictation was but a living tradition of past ages. She was the natural enemy of intellectual and political progress, and, with her most varied population of Magyars and Slavs, was no further advanced nor had higher aspirations than had her near Russian neighbor. The faintest attempts of her people to liberalize their institutions, or better their political condition, were met with the most pronounced and decisive punishment. Inadvertent expressions were interpreted as treason, and high-minded women were publicly whipped at the pillory for honesty of expression. The country was ruled by military satraps. She was the first German State to repudiate the Constitution wrung from her in 1849. Under her leadership were Germans from Prussia, Bavaria, Württemberg, Baden, Saxony, Hanover, Hesse, Mecklenburg and Austria, but not Germany, and they have only become Germans of Germany through Prussia's happy interference and elevation to imperial power.

In the face of all these facts, the Emperor of Austria had the audacity, on the 17<sup>th</sup> of June, 1866, just before the opening of the hostilities, in a manifesto, to call upon the world as a witness to the justness of his cause.

Referring to the perfidious action of his representative at the Frankfort Diet, in his attempt to entrap Prussia into submitting the Schleswig-Holstein question to this Austria-disposed body, he says:

“While engaged in a work of peace, which was undertaken for the purpose of laying the foundation for a Constitution which should augment the unity and power of the Empire, and at the same time secure to my



**Dier Generationen.**  
**Kaiser Wilhelm I., Sohn, Enkel und Urenkel.**  
**Four Generations**  
**Emperor William I., Son, Grand-Son and Great-Grand-Son.**

several countries and peoples free internal development, my duties as a sovereign have obliged me to place my whole army under arms. On the frontiers of my Empire, in the south and in the north, stand the armies of two enemies who have allied with the intention of breaking the power of Austria as a great European State. To neither of those enemies have I given cause for war. I call on an Omniscient God to bear witness that I have always considered it my first, my most sacred duty, to do all in my power to secure for my peoples the blessings of peace.

“The negotiations with Prussia in respect to the Elbe Duchies clearly proved that a settlement of the question in a way compatible with the dignity of Austria, and with the rights and interests of Germany and the Duchies, could not be brought about, as Prussia was violent and intent on conquest. The negotiations were therefore broken off, the whole affair was referred to the Bund, and at the same time the legal representatives of Holstein were convoked.

“The danger of war induced the three Powers—France, England and Russia—to invite my Government to participate in general conferences, the object of which was to be the maintenance of peace. My Government, in accordance with my views, and if possible, to secure the blessing of peace for my peoples, did not refuse to share in the conferences, but made their acceptance dependent on the confirmation of the supposition that the public law of Europe and the existing treaties were to form the basis of the attempt at mediation, and that the Powers represented would not seek to uphold special interests which could be prejudicial to the balance of power in Europe,

and to the rights of Austria. The fact that the attempt to mediate failed because these natural suppositions were made, is a proof that the conferences could not have led to the maintenance of peace. Recent events clearly prove that Prussia substitutes open violence for right and justice.

“The most pernicious of wars—a war of Germans against Germans—has become inevitable, and I now summon before the tribunal of history—before the tribunal of an eternal and all-powerful God—those persons who have brought it about, and make them responsible for the misfortunes which may fall on individuals, families, districts, and countries. We shall not be alone in the struggle which is about to take place. The princes and people of Germany know that *liberty and independence* are menaced by a Power which listens but to the dictates of egotism, and is under the influence of an ungovernable craving after aggrandizement; and they also know that in Austria they have an upholder of the *freedom*, power and integrity of the whole of the German Fatherland. We and our German brethren have taken up arms in defense of the most precious rights of nations. We have been forced to do so, and we neither can nor will disarm until the internal development of my Empire and of the German States, which are allied with it, has been secured, and also their power and influence in Europe. My hopes are not based on unity of purpose—on power alone. I confide in an Almighty and a just God, whom my house from its very foundation has faithfully served—a God who never forsakes those who righteously put their trust in Him. To Him I pray for assistance and success, and I call on my people to join me in that prayer.”

## CHAPTER X.

### THE AUSTRO-PRUSSIAN WAR.

ON the 18th of June this Austrian manifesto was followed by a proclamation from King William I., in which he called the Prussian people to arms, and declared that he had sought friendly relations with Austria but had been treated by that power as a dangerous and hostile rival. He referred to his policy in demanding the reorganization of the army, and pointed with pride to his achievement in that direction. In closing the King promised in case of victory to reconstitute the German Confederation upon a firm basis. The proclamation was a fair statement of facts, and, as events have since demonstrated, a sincere prognostication of Prussian future policy as a German Power.

The shock of arms, however, was soon to eclipse the effect of manifesto and proclamation. The assurance of Austria's friends in the future success of her arms was not without foundation. Her General-in-chief, Field-Marshal Benedek, was an experienced soldier with a well established reputation, and his army of 270,000 well-drilled, and well-disciplined soldiers, stationed in Moravia, were believed to be in as good fighting order as the troops Prussia would bring against them. In addition to this formidable army, the auxiliary forces furnished by her partly voluntary, partly compulsory allies of the different German States, aggregated 143,000 men, placed in the field in the following

quotas: Bavaria 30,000 men, Saxony 24,000, Hanover 20,000, Würtemberg 16,300, Hesse-Darmstadt 9,400, Electorate of Hesse 7,000, Nassau 5,400, and Baden, geographically so situated as to be easily coerced by Austria, had to contribute a contingency of 10,900 men.

Prussia had 326,000 men ready to take the field, and in an emergency could rely on 100,000 of the Landwehr arm of her forces, who all had seen military service.

Geographically, Prussia was at a disadvantage in a war with Austria, now in league with the smaller German States.

Hanover and the Electorate of Hesse reached far into the interior of her dominion on the West, while Saxony overlapped her territory on the East. Under these circumstances, prompt and decisive action was imperatively demanded. The governments of Saxony, Hanover, and of Hesse-Cassel were informed by Bismarck that unless they sided with Prussia (in which case the sovereign rights of the rulers would be guaranteed) war would be declared against them; to this proposition an answer was expected on the evening of the day upon which the notice was dispatched. Saxony promptly replied "No!" and the two others, having failed to reply in the time specified, a declaration of war was instantly made by the Prussian Government against all three. Prussia was fully prepared. While King William, in the appointment of Bismarck, had secured for his affairs of state a man of extraordinary genius, he had also been as favored in securing the military genius of the age for his affairs of war. Bismarck, having performed his task in the diplomatic field, promptly took his position in the rear, allowing his masterly colleague, General Von Moltke, to pass to the front.



GENERAL VON MOLTKE, or rather Helmuth Karl Bernhard von Moltke, was born at Parchim, Mecklenburg, in 1800. His father was a general in the Danish army, and young Von Moltke passed his first years of study at the Copenhagen Military Academy. He was commissioned at the age of eighteen, and at twenty-two entered the Prussian service. After ten years' labor and hard study he was received upon the general staff. In 1835 Mahmoud II. invited him to Constantinople, to superintend the fortifications and direct the warfare against Egypt and the troublesome Kurds of Asia. He returned to Berlin after the Sultan's death in 1839, and was employed until 1856 in staff service, when he became adjutant to Prince Frederick William, and two years later Chief of the General Staff of the army. His great success as a commander has been due, it is claimed, to his military system of making the different army corps advance separately and operate simultaneously upon a given point.

While the two monarchs were formulating their proclamations, General Von Moltke had completed his preparations for war, even to the minutest details. The commanders of the different army corps only waited for the word, "Forward!" through the click of the telegraph, to set their troops in motion.

The word came, and on the next day, June 17th, the Prussians had entered Hanover, and on the 18th occupied Dresden, Cassel and Leipsic. The Prince of Hesse was taken prisoner and sent to Stettin, and after to Königsberg under guard, while his army made its escape southward. The Saxon army of 23,000 also withdrew in the same direction, finally joining the Austrian army under General Benedek. King George, of Hanover, having

failed to effect a retreat toward Austria in time, was surrounded by Prussian forces where, expecting Bavarian support, he dallied away his time in the vicinity of the Harz Mountains and Thuringian Forest. His object was, also, to gain time for negotiations with King William, in which object he was so far successful as to receive the same offer tendered him before the commencement of hostilities. An honorable surrender and alliance with Prussia was not satisfactory to this unsagacious monarch, whereupon his army of 24,000 Hanoverians was attacked by General Flies, with a Prussian force of 8,000, at Langensalza, on the 27th of June. Owing to the great disparity of numbers in the two contending forces, the Prussians suffered a defeat; but reinforcements under Generals Falkenstein and Manteuffel having reached the scene of action during the night and following day, King George was forced to surrender. He and the Crown Prince were permitted to repair to Vienna, and his troops to return to their homes. Immense quantities of war supplies were added to the Prussian army by this first encounter. Thus, in the space of ten days, had two-thirds of Austria's German allied forces been placed *hors de combat*, and without even an attempt at united resistance; this blow in the West had resulted from the total absence of such precautionary measures as a plan for concentrated action would have suggested.

While these events were transpiring in the smaller States of Austria's contingent, the main army of Prussia had advanced in two different bodies toward the Bohemian frontier, under the respective commands of Prince Frederick Charles, the King of Prussia's nephew, and Crown Prince Frederick William (present Emperor). The

troops of the former were composed of the Second, Third, Fourth and Eighth Army Corps, drawn from Pomerania, Brandenburg, Saxony, and the Rhinish Provinces; the latter was composed of the First, Fifth and Sixth Corps from Prussia, Silesia, and Glatz, and was under the direct command of General Von Bittenfeld.

It had been the Austrian General Benedek's intention to transfer the seat of war to Prussian territory, in order to refresh the memory of these Prussians who had enjoyed a long period of peace with the remembrance of former Austrian invasions, but unfortunately for the generous intention of the Austrian commander, General Von Moltke had anticipated his intentions, and the visit was postponed, for while General Benedek was quietly marching his troops from Moravia to the Elbe, Saxony was as quietly being occupied by Prussian divisions, while Prussian soldiers in large numbers were already appearing upon the Austrian frontier. This uncivil and abrupt conduct of General Von Moltke had a very disconcerting effect upon the Austrian commander Benedek, who now decided to lay in wait for the enemy on the Austrian plains near the mountain passes.

General Bittenfeld, with his 40,000 troops of Rhinelanders, marched up along the right bank of the Elbe and entered Bohemia on the 22d of June, and on the 23d the first troop followed and took a position a few miles east of Bittenfeld. Here they were met by the advance body of the Austrian army, which had been joined by the 20,000 Saxon auxiliaries, making 60,000 under the command of Count Clam-Gallas. His efforts to defend the Iser were in vain, and on the 26th of June Bittenfeld had forced his way at Hünérwasser, and on the same day

the First corps, after a severe conflict near Podol, made a joint attack upon Clam-Gallas, defeating him after a bloody struggle at Münchengrätz, and compelling his withdrawal to Getschin. Had the Austrian general received sufficient reinforcements he might have prevented the junction of the two Prussian armies under the Crown Prince with Bittenfeld and Prince Charles, as he occupied a strong position between them. Before assistance arrived, however, he was again attacked by Prince Frederick Charles, and forced to retreat.

In the meantime, the Crown Prince had entered Bohemia through the three mountain passes, Richenbach, Reichenberg, and Königstein. Upon the plains at the foot of the mountains the Austrians offered determined resistance, and attempted to drive the Prussians back into the passes. At Nachod, General Steinmetz attacked the Austrians, and after a bloody encounter took 2,500 prisoners. On June 28th the Crown Prince and Steinmetz advanced to Skalitz, which, after some fighting, was taken. On the 29th the Aupa was crossed, the Austrians disputing the ground inch by inch, until Gradlitz, in the valley of the Elbe, was reached, when another battle took place, but the Austrians were driven from the field and forced to seek shelter under the guns of the strong citadel of Josephstadt. During this time the Prussian royal guard had defeated General Gablentz and taken 6,000 prisoners. At this stage of hostilities the whole Prussian army of 250,000 men stood waiting near Köeniggratz.

King William and his Chief of Staff Von Moltke, whose matchless genius had planned the whole campaign, his prime minister Von Bismarck, whose statesmanship had brought Prussia to a condition where she could manfully

**Der Berliner Kongreß.  
THE BERLIN CONGRESS.**



sustain herself while passing through a military ordeal of such magnitude, and his efficient and cautious War Minister, Von Roon, all were still in Berlin. On the 29th of June, twelve days after the armies were set in motion, the victories of Hüenerwasser, Podol, and Nachod in Bohemia, and of Langensalza in Hanover, had reached the Prussian capital. And behold the sudden change in public sentiment which, until now, had been more or less sullen. The joyful tidings threw the people into a state of the wildest enthusiasm for the very men they had been cursing and traducing but a few hours before. The stores of the city were forthwith gaily decorated, and an address of congratulation, containing 20,000 signatures, was presented to the King the evening of the same day. Not satisfied with this, the enthusiastic populace were determined to see the King, and express to him in person their feelings of admiration and gratefulness, proceeding in immense throngs to the palace, where, in front of the historic corner-window, from a hundred thousand throats, arose Luther's soul-stirring anthem, "A powerful fortress is our God." When, in response to their enthusiastic calls, the aged King appeared and acknowledged their greetings in a few words of thanks for their friendly expressions, adding, "I shall carry these sentiments with me to the Army," the immense throng burst forth in a storm of cheers and applause. But there were other amends to be made; they had maligned King William's minister; had called Bismarck names, and had even suspected him of disloyalty to Prussia. The cry soon rang out, "Away to Bismarck! to Bismarck! let us away to Bismarck!" and the stream of human beings, singing and shouting, rolled on towards Bismarck's residence.

The joyous multitude, upon reaching the street in front of the Premier's house, as it caught a glimpse of his massive form at the open window, rent the air with shouts and cheers of commendation. This must have been a moment of superlative satisfaction to the self-dependent statesman.

Clouds had been gathering overhead, and while the people stood shouting and cheering, a sudden flash of lightning followed by a tremendous clap of thunder startled the throng. The vivid flash, for a moment, illuminated the impassable face of the man of "blood and iron"; raising his arm he pointed upward, and in a voice equaling the roar of God's artillery, exclaimed: "Behold! the heavens are joining in our triumphs of victory. *God save the Fatherland!*"

The cry of exultation that followed these few words was deafening. It rolled from street to street, from man to man, until Berlin became as one inspiring, unanimous, vehement voice in praise of the sturdy, patriotic hero of the hour. On the same evening, near midnight, King William, Bismarck, Moltke and Von Roon hurried from the capital to the front, where the King was to take supreme command over the Prussian army.

Within the few days in which the several battles had been fought, the Austrian commander had suffered a loss of 35,000 men, and of the seven corps composing his army, five had been thoroughly beaten. The army was demoralized, and apprehensive of the result General Benedek telegraphed to the Emperor of Austria as follows: "Sir, you must make peace." But his master was not ready for peace; there was too much at stake for him and his dynasty, and, on the 2d of July, King William established



his headquarters at Gitchin. He was most enthusiastically received by the army, and his presence, as well as that of his distinguished staff, increased the confidence and ardor of the troops. In a letter to the Queen, at Berlin, the King thus described this hearty greeting: "The rejoicing which broke out here when the guards first saw me, can not be described. The officers caught my hands and kissed them, which now and then I was obliged to permit, and so it continued from one body of troops to another; everywhere, cheers upon cheers."

During the night from the 2d to the 3d, a dispatch was received at headquarters from Prince Frederick Karl, in which permission was asked to attack General Benedek in the morning. A slight apprehension was felt on account of the possible detention of the Crown Prince's command, stationed several miles from the proposed field of battle; however, the general attack was resolved upon. Early on the morning of the 3d, the Prussian cavalry and horse artillery were seen moving forward, as if to feel the enemy's position, when they were fired upon from an Austrian battery situated near Sadowa. The main army of Prussia was now drawn up in battle array. General Herwarth von Bittenfeld was in command of the right wing, and the center near Sadowa was held by Prince Frederick Charles. King William, with Bismarck, Moltke, and Von Roon at his side, sat upon his charger, overlooking the field.

This memorable battle, which determined the future well-being of Germany, has been often glowingly described by many German writers. But in order to avoid even the shadow of German bias, the author prefers to use the account of a disinterested witness, published in the *London Times* a few days after the battle:

“It was ten o’clock when Prince Frederick Charles sent General Stuhnapf to order the attack on Sadowa, Dohilnitz, and Mokrowens. The columns advanced, covered by skirmishers, and reached the river bank without much loss; but from there they had to fight every inch of their way. The Austrian infantry held the bridges and villages in force, and fired fast upon them as they approached. The Prussians could advance but slowly along the narrow ways and against the defenses of the houses, and the volleys sweeping through the ranks seemed to tear the soldiers down. The Prussians fired much more quickly than their opponents, but they could not see to take their aim; the houses, trees and smoke from the Austrian discharges, shrouded the villages. Sheltered by this, the Austrian Jägers fired blindly when they could tell, by hearing where the attacking columns were, and the shots told tremendously on the Prussians in their close formations; but the latter improved their positions, although slowly, and by dint of sheer courage and perseverance, for they lost men at every yard of their advance, and in some places almost paved the way with wounded. Then, to help the infantry, the Prussian artillery turned its fire, regardless of the enemy’s batteries, on the villages, and made tremendous havoc amongst the houses. Mokrowens and Dohilnitz both caught fire, and the shells fell quickly and with fearful effect among the defenders of the flaming hamlets; the Austrian guns also played upon the attacking infantry, but at this time these were sheltered from their fire by the houses and trees between.

“In and around the villages the fighting continued for nearly an hour; then the Austrian infantry who had been there, driven out by a rush of the Prussians, retired, but



Weyland

only a little way up the slope into a line with their batteries. The wood above Sadowa was strongly held, and that between Sadowa and Benatek, teeming with riflemen, stood to bar the way of the Seventh Division. But General Franksy, who commanded this division, was not to be easily stopped, and he sent his infantry at the wood, and turned his artillery on the Austrian batteries. The Seventh Division began firing into the trees, but found that they could not make any impression, for the defenders were concealed, and musketry fire was useless against them. Then Franksy let them go, and they dashed in with the bayonet. The Austrians would not retire, but waited for the struggle; and in the wood above Benatek was fought out one of the fiercest combats which the war has seen. The 27th Prussian went in nearly 3,000 strong, with 90 officers, and came out on the farther side with only two officers and between 300 and 400 men standing; all the rest were killed or wounded. The other regiments of the division also suffered much, but not in the same proportion; but the wood was carried. The Austrian line was now driven in on both flanks, but its commander formed a new line of battle a little higher up the hill, round Lipa, still holding the wood which lies above Sadowa.

“Meanwhile, General Bittenfeld was fighting a desperate battle with the Saxon troops at Nechanitz, a village seven miles from Sadowa. Courageously did the Saxons meet the foe, but they were slowly driven backward upon the main body of the Austrian army. The Prussians now endeavored to carry the wood above Sadowa and Dolhilitz, a very important strategical point, but the Austrian batteries played upon them with murderous effect. The whole battle line of the Prussians

could gain no more ground, and was obliged to fight hard to retain the position it had won. At one time it seemed as if it would be lost, for guns had been dismounted by the Austrian fire, and in the wooded ground the needle-gun had no fair field, and the infantry fight was very equal. Bittenfeld, too, seemed checked upon the right. The smoke of his musketry and artillery, which had hitherto been pushing forward steadily, stood still for a time. Franksy's men, cut to pieces, could not be sent forward to attack the Sadowa wood, for they would have exposed themselves to be taken in rear by the artillery on the right of the Austrian line formed in front of Lipa. All the artillery was engaged except eight batteries, and these had to be retained in case of a reverse, for at one time the firing in the Sadowa wood, and of the Prussian artillery on the slope, seemed almost as if drawing back toward Bistritz. The first army was certainly checked in its advance, if not actually being pushed back. It is said, at this point King William showed great nervousness and fear."

The chances of victory were now exactly even for both armies, and the moment was critical. The Prussian generals were waiting uneasily for the Crown Prince, and the position reminded the *Times* correspondent of the closing of the battle of Waterloo, when the Duke of Wellington so anxiously awaited the coming of Blücher. But at half-past one in the afternoon the army of the Crown Prince emerged into view, and at once engaged the Austrian right. The Austrian failed to carry the village of Klum, and now found themselves exposed to a cross fire. What followed is thus described: "Suddenly a spattering of musketry breaks out of the trees and houses of Klum, right

down on the Austrian gunners, and on the columns of infantry drawn up on the slopes below. The gunners fall on all sides—their horses are disabled—the firing increases in intensity—the Prussians press on over the plateau: this is an awful catastrophe—two columns of Austrians are led against the village; but they can not stand the fire, and after three attempts to carry it, retreat, leaving the hill-side covered with the fallen. It is a terrible moment. The Prussians see their advantage; they here enter into the very center of the position. In vain the staff-officers fly to the reserves, and hasten to call back some of the artillery from the front. The dark blue regiments multiply on all sides, and from their edges roll perpetually sparkling musketry. Their guns hurry up, and from the slope take both the Austrians on the extreme right and the reserves in flank. They spread away to the woods near the Prague road, and fire into the rear of the Austrian gunners.

“The lines of dark blue which came in sight from the right teemed from the vales below as if the earth yielded them. They filled the whole background of the awful picture, of which Klum was the center. They pressed down on the left of the Prague road. In square, in column, deployed, or wheeling hither and thither—everywhere pouring in showers of deadly precision—penetrating the whole line of the Austrians—still they could not force their stubborn enemy to fly. On all sides they met brave but unfortunate men ready to die if they could do no more. At the side of the Prague road the fight went on with incredible vehemence. The Austrians had still an immense force of artillery; and although its concentrated fire swept the ground before it, its effect was lost

in degree by reason of the rising ground above, and at last by its divergence to so many points to answer the enemy's cannon. Chesta and Visa were now burning, so that from right to left the flames of ten villages, and the flashes of guns and musketry, contended with the sun, that pierced the clouds for the honor of illuminating the seas of steel and the fields of carnage. It was three o'clock. The efforts of the Austrians to occupy Klum and free their center had failed; their right was driven down in a helpless mass towards Königgrätz, quivering and palpitating as shot and shell tore through it. '*Alles ist verloren!*' Artillery still thundered with a force and violence which might have led a stranger to such scenes to think no enemy could withstand it. The Austrian cavalry still hung like white thunder-clouds on the flanks, and threatened the front of the Prussians, keeping them in square and solid columns. But already the trains were steaming away from Königgrätz, placing the Elbe and Adler between them and the enemy."

Thus was the battle of Sadowa, or, as it was called by King William "The battle of Königsgrätz," won by the Prussian army. It was probably the shortest and most decisive battle, where half a million men confronted each other in deadly array, which was ever fought. The Prussian loss was 9,000 men, that of the Austrians and Saxons 24,000 killed and wounded, besides the 20,000 prisoners, the loss of 161 guns, 5 colors, and an immense amount of war material and army stores. During the whole campaign Austria had lost 40,000 prisoners, 200 pieces of artillery, and 11 stand of colors. More, the army was in a state of complete dissolution, and General Benedek experienced great difficulty in bringing its shattered rem-







nants into the fortress of Olmütz for reorganization. Many interesting reminiscences of this great conflict are told concerning the individual part taken by King William. In a letter to his wife the day after the battle, Bismarck said: "On the 3d the King exposed himself to danger all day, and it was very fortunate that I was with him, for he would not listen to advice from anybody else. No one would have dared to speak to him as I did on one occasion, when the bodies of ten troopers and fifteen horses of the Sixth Regiment of Cuirassiers lay bathed in blood close by, and the shells were bursting in close proximity to the King. He was very enthusiastic about his troops, and rightly so, and did not appear to notice the shells that were whizzing and bursting about him."

In another letter Bismarck said:

"The attention of the King was wholly fixed on the progress of the battle. To my repeated request that his Majesty might not so carelessly expose himself to the murderous fire, he only answered: "The Commander-in-Chief must be where he ought to be." Later on, at the village of Lipa, when the King in person had ordered the cavalry to advance, and the shells were again falling round him, I ventured to renew my request, saying, "If your Majesty will take no care of your own person, have pity at least on your (poor) Minister-President, from whom your faithful Prussian people will again demand their King; and in the name of that people I entreat you to leave this dangerous spot." Then the King gave me his hand, with a "Well, then, Bismarck, let us ride on a little." So saying, his Majesty wheeled his black mare, and put her into as easy a canter as if he had been riding down the Linden to the Thiergarten. But for all that I felt

very uneasy about him; and so, edging up with my dark chestnut to the King's horse, I gave her a good kick from behind with the toe of my boot; she made a bound forward, and the King looked around in astonishment. With a glance which convinced me that he knew of my action, but without another word he rode out of the range of the shells."

King William, fully appreciating the fact that but for the timely arrival of Crown Prince Frederick William and his army upon the field at Klum, the day would have been lost, and upon the impulse of the moment, sent his son, by a special courier, the Order "*Pour le Merite*," but the Prince was not to be found. Late in the evening, and by mere accident, they met on the field, and, recognizing each other, fell into each other's arms.

Thereupon the King took the Order "*Pour le Merite*" from his breast, and hung it about his son's neck.

The imperturbable coolness of General Moltke under fire is well illustrated by a writer in the *Deutsche Review* for October, 1884, in which he relates the following interesting episode at Sadowa:

"At a critical point in the battle Bismarck met Moltke, and offered him a cigar. The strategist carefully selected the best weed in the Chancellor's case, and the latter took comfort, thinking to himself that if the General was still calm enough to make a choice of the best cigar in the whole lot, things could not be going so very bad with them after all."

The unexpected victory of the Prussians at Sadowa, threw the government at Vienna into a state of dismay and irresolution. In his sore distress and in the hope of securing Napoleon III. for an ally, the Emperor, who but

a short month before had solemnly declared to the world, that all his hopes and aims were in the direction of a United Germany, was now found offering to cede to the implacable foe of Germany the Italian city and province of Venice; to be held, to be sure, in trust for Italy. By this expectation, however, King Victor Emanuel was not dissuaded from carrying out his obligations as Prussia's ally, and Napoleon III. not deeming it prudent to offend victorious Prussia just at that time, Austria's hope for a repetition of the Maria Theresa policy was not realized, and the Emperor was left to his own resources. His request for an armistice was promptly rejected, as were, also the mediatory overtures made by the Emperor of the French. Orders were issued for an immediate advance. The army of Silesia was sent towards Olmütz, as a corps of observation against General Benedek, while King William himself marched his army through Brunn toward Nickelburg, where, on the 17th of July, he established his headquarters. During these movements the advance-guard of his army had already reached so short a distance from Vienna that its camp-fires could be discerned at night by the astonished inhabitants.

A few days after the battle of Sadowa, and after his humble demand for an armistice had been *rejected*, Emperor Francis Joseph, in a manifesto to his "faithful people of the Kingdom of Hungary,"—which composed the principal fighting population of Austria,—cooly informed them that "To put an end to the unequal contest—to gain time and opportunity to fill up the voids occasioned by the campaign—and to concentrate his forces against the hostile troops occupying the northern portion of his Empire, *he had consented*, with *great sacrifices*, to negotiations for the conclusion of an armistice."

He then made the following piteous appeal for help from the Hungarians, his subdued subjects, who, but a few years before, had seen their best and most patriotic sons perish on the gallows or die traitors' deaths at the hands of Austrian executioners:

"I now turn confidently to the faithful peoples of my Kingdom of Hungary, and to that readiness to make sacrifices so repeatedly displayed in arduous times. The united exertions of my entire Empire must be set in motion, that the conclusion of the wished-for peace may be secured upon fair conditions. It is my profound belief, that the warlike sons of Hungary, actuated by the feeling of hereditary fidelity, will voluntarily hasten under my banners, to the assistance of their kindred, and for the protection of their country, also immediately threatened by the events of war. Rally, therefore, in force to the defense of the invaded Empire! Be worthy sons of your valiant forefathers, whose heroic deeds gained never-fading wreaths of laurel for the glory of the Hungarian name."

Having now lost all hope in French intervention, the Emperor of Austria finally concluded to approach King William with propositions of peace. Both the King and Bismarck were determined, that while they did not intend to extend the territorial limits of Prussia at Austria's expense, they unreservedly demanded that Power's exclusion hereafter in the affairs of Germany. The preliminaries for peace with this understanding began at Nicholson, were ratified and the agreement signed at Prague, August 23, 1866.

The chief stipulations of the treaty were:

1. The German Confederation is dissolved.
2. That Germany re-construct itself anew, with exclu-

sion of Austria, and in the manner that the German States lying north of the Main river enter into a confederation with Prussia; while the States lying south of that line shall form an independent confederation among themselves, of which the national connections with the North German Confederation is reserved for future arrangement.

3. Austria shall waive all right to Schleswig-Holstein.

4. Austria to pay Prussia twenty million thalers war indemnity. (About the same sum in English.) All accessions of territory in North Germany by Prussia to be sanctioned by Austria. Saxony to be allowed to retain her King, provided she joins the North German Confederation — a most unmerited act of generosity, when it is considered that the reigning dynasty of this Kingdom seemed to have inherited a “penchant” for slavish subserviency to foreign dictation.

On the day when this Treaty of Prague was signed—though as yet he was unaware of it—Thomas Carlyle wrote to a friend: “That Germany is to stand on her feet henceforth, and not be dismembered on the highway; but face all manner of Napoleons, and hungry, sponging dogs, with clear steel in her hands and an honest purpose in her heart—this seems to me the best news we or Europe have heard for the last forty years or more. May the heavens prosper it! Many thanks also for Bismarck’s photograph; he has a Royal enough physiognomy, and I more and more believe him to be a highly considerable man; perhaps the nearest approach to a Cromwell that is possible in these poor times.”

Although King William had ample justification, it was not his desire to humiliate Austria by an aggrandizement of Prussian territory at her expense. He had placed

her where she could do no more harm to Germany, and where she was powerless to impede her political and religious progress ; that accomplishment had been his sole end, and he magnanimously refused to take advantage of his position to obtain more. As to Austria's auxiliaries of the South German States, Bismarck had but little difficulty to encounter in the way of an amicable understanding with them. General Von Falkenstein, who had been left in the South German States, did not deem it wise to shed more blood of his misguided countrymen than was absolutely necessary, having been called to Bohemia to assume administrative duties, relinquished his command to General Manteuffel, who entered into an armistice with the princes, thus closing the unbloody chapter of this Austro-Prussian war.

On the 13th, 17th and 22d of August, a compact was entered into between Prussia, representing the North-German Bund, and Würtemberg, Baden and Bavaria, on the other, by which it was agreed, that in case of war they should stand by each other, and that in such an event all troops should be placed under the command of Prussia. On the 3d of September Hesse-Darmstadt, and on October 21st Saxony followed suit. The great groundwork for the definite unification of Germany had now been safely laid, consequently the idea for which King William had been laboring, and for which he had risked his popularity and his throne, had been realized. The only feature in this final settlement, which has caused many regrets and heart-burnings, was the necessary abandonment to Austria of its German population, which had always been loyal to the German cause. The brave mountaineers, as well as many German citizens of Vienna, were in hearty sympathy with the German cause.



With laurel-entwined banners, King William, Bismarck, Moltke and their trusted regiments made this triumphal entry into the Prussian capital, amid the shouts of a grateful and enthusiastic people.

The gallant and soldierly King rode first on horseback, and was accompanied by Count Bismarck and Generals Moltke, Roon, and others. Says a correspondent of an English newspaper, describing the scene immediately before the brilliant cavalcade passed down the Linden: "For my part I could spare but little attention for the King himself. A few yards farther on there stood a group of horsemen. One was General Von Roon, the Minister of War, another was General Moltke, the soldier to whom, more than any single person, the conduct and conception of the campaign are due. On the extreme right, in the white uniform of a Major-General of Landwehr Cuirassiers, a broad-shouldered, short-necked man sat mounted on a brown bay mare. Very still and silent the rider sits, waiting patiently until the interview between the King and the civic authorities is concluded. The skin of his face is parchment-colored, with dull leaden-hued blotches about the cheeks; the eyes are bloodless; the veins about the forehead are swollen; the great heavy helmet presses upon the wrinkled brows; the man looks as if he had risen from a sick-bed which he ought never to have left. That is Count Bismarck-Schönhausen, Prime Minister of Prussia. Yesterday he was said to be well nigh dying; ugly rumors floated about the town; his doctors declared that rest, absolute rest, was the only remedy upon which they could base their hopes of his recovery. But to-day it was important that the Premier should show himself. The iron will,

which had never swerved before any obstacle, was not to be daunted by physical pain or to be swayed by medical remonstrances. And so, to the astonishment of all those who knew how critical his state of health had been but a few hours before, Count Bismarck put on his uniform and rode out to-day to take his place in the royal *cortége*. Even now the man, who has made a united Germany a possibility, and has raised Prussia from the position of a second-rate Power to the highest rank among Continental empires, is but scantily honored in his own country; and the cheers with which he was greeted were tame compared with those which welcomed the generals who had been the instruments of the work his brain had planned. But to those, I think, who looked at all beyond the excitement of the day—the true hero of that brilliant gathering was neither King nor Prince of the blood-royal—general nor soldier, but the sallow, livid-looking statesman, who was there in spite of racking pain and doctors' advice and the commonest caution, in order that his work might be completed to the end."

By way of marking the day with a white stone, an amnesty was proclaimed for all persons who had been convicted of high treason or other offenses against the Crown, resistance to the State authorities, violation of public order, offenses committed by the press in infringement of the Press Law of 1851, and for infractions of the ordinance of the 11th of March, 1851, regulating the right of public meetings.

With a feeling of self-satisfaction and excusable pride the King opened the sessions of the Prussian House of Representatives in person. In his speech from the throne, which he read in a dignified manner and calm tone of

Kaiser Wilhelm auf dem Todtenbette.  
THE DEAD EMPEROR.



voice, he referred to the recent success achieved by the Government, which had been gained in spite of the Chambers, and now asked the representatives to ratify the bill of expenditures. This request was acceded to by a vote of 230 against 75.

From this time on political affairs moved along more smoothly, and a commonness of interest throughout Germany infused new life into every branch of industry and trade. Within a year the representatives of the annexed States were admitted to seats in the Prussian House of Representatives.

On the 24th of February, 1867, the Parliament of the newly-formed North-German Confederation opened its first session, and on the 17th of April following its Constitution was proclaimed. This fundamental law guaranteed to the people of all the States north of the Main line, equal citizenship, equality of commercial laws, of jurisprudence, of weights and measures, of money and equal telegraph and postal accommodations. Each State was left to manage its own local affairs according to the taste and convenience of its people.

In closing the session of this memorable Parliament, King William pointedly and truthfully said: "As the direction of the German mind generally is turned toward peace and her labors, the Confederate Association of the German States will mainly assume a defensive character. The German movement of recent years has borne no hostile tendency toward our neighbors, no striving after conquest, but has arisen solely from the necessity of affording the broad domains, from the Alps to the sea, the essential conditions of political progress, which the march of development in former centuries has impeded.

The German races unite only for defense, not for attack; and that their brotherhood is also regarded in this light by neighboring nations is proved by the friendly attitude of the mightiest European States, which see Germany, without apprehension and envy, take possession of those same advantages of a great political commonwealth which they themselves have already enjoyed for centuries.

“It therefore now only depends upon us, upon our unity and our patriotism, to secure to the whole of Germany the guarantees of a future in which, free from the danger of again falling into dissension and weakness, she will be able to further, by her own decision, her Constitutional development and prosperity, and to fulfill her peace-loving mission in the Council of Nations. I trust in God that posterity, looking back upon our common labors, will not say that the experience of former unsuccessful attempts has been useless to the German people; but that, on the other hand, our children will thankfully regard this Parliament as the commencement of the unity, freedom and power of the Germans.

“Gentlemen, all Germany, even beyond the limits of our Confederation, anxiously awaits the decisions that may be arrived at here. May the dream of centuries, the yearning and striving of the latest generations, be realized by our common labors! In the name of all the allied Governments—in the name of Germany—I confidently call upon you to help us to carry out rapidly and safely the great national task. And may the blessing of God, upon which everything depends, accompany and promote the patriotic work!”

These lofty sentiments found lodgment in every German heart, and, indeed, the benefit of the newly-

formed union to the people was becoming daily more apparent. Of this period of contentment and prosperity, says a recent writer:

“The benefits which their new union was to confer on the German States were not long in showing themselves in every department of legislative administration and trade, and attracted the recognition of foreign nations. The people of the districts annexed to Prussia in 1866 were so wisely governed, that most of them soon became not mere subjects, but patriotic citizens of that Kingdom. The States which had taken up arms against Prussia rapidly forgot their enmity; and the whole German people soon began to regret that the Main line had been suffered to limit the new union on the South. The Southern States, however, had been more closely bound to the Northern by their treaties of offensive and defensive alliances; and still more so by the Zollverein, which was now more firmly established under the administration of a Customs-Parliament of all the States. There still continued to be a party of “Particularists” in Southern Germany, whose local prejudices and aims opposed the national policy of union; but its strength depended upon merely temporary interests, and it was not important enough to resist the overwhelming popular sentiment. In Prussia, and within the new Confederation, the bitterness of hostility formerly shown to the Government, now disappeared. Austria at first showed a disposition to continue its policy of resistance to Prussian ascendancy in Germany, and Beust, the late Premier of Saxony and long the foe of Austria, was made Chancellor of the Empire; but the Government gradually become more and more conciliatory.”

## CHAPTER XI.

### THE FRANCO-PRUSSIAN WAR.

**I**T IS known that previous to the war with Austria, and while this power was coquetting with Emperor Napoleon, Mr. Beneditti, the French ambassador at Berlin, had been instructed to demand from the Prussian government the cession of the German provinces along the left bank of the Rhine, in consideration of France's neutrality in the coming struggle with Austria, and to threaten Prussia with war in case of refusal. "Then let there be war," promptly replied Bismarck. Beneditti evidently not being prepared for such a manly reply, quietly dropped the subject for the time being. Furthermore, Napoleon III. was not prepared for war just then. The French army had not received its complement of the new Chassepot muskets yet, the efficiency of which was to excel the Prussian needle-gun in rapidity and precision. He also fondly hoped that Prussia would emerge from a war with Austria in a damaged condition, and consequently be unable to refuse a demand for the Rhine frontiers when again asked.

Having been disappointed in this expectation, the French turned upon Napoleon, charging him with weakness and indecision in not preventing the unification of Germany, when the Austro-Prussian war had offered such a splendid opportunity. They, also, began to clamor for their share in the new division of Europe, and their demands in that direction being refused by Prussia, they began to bluster about a war of revenge. In 1867 the



**Grauer in der familie.**  
**THE MOURNING GERMAN FAMILY.**



Luxemburg question was siezed upon with avidity as an excellent pretext for a war with the hated *tête carri* across the Rhine; and the opening of hostilities was only averted by Prussia's magnanimous evacuation of the fortress. In 1870 a most welcome pretext for an attack upon Prussia by France was found in the circumstance that Prince Leopold of Hohenzollern Sigmaringen, a distant relative of Emperor William, had been offered the Spanish Crown; but this pretext having been removed by the Prince's prompt refusal of the proffered honor, a war with France was again averted. The French press grew furious at being thus disappointed, and its columns were daily filled with fulminating articles against Germany. On the 8th of July a scurrilous attack upon Prussia appeared in the *Moniteur* — the official organ of the Government — in which the writer said: "The time for taking revenge on account of the affront suffered at the hands of Prussia, has come!" The entire Parisian press soon followed suit. The influential *Le Pays*, for instance, boasted that in case of a refusal to the just demands of France, the yoke was ready for Prussia, who would not dare to cross swords with the victorious legions of France; and the flighty Emil de Gerardine flippantly referred, in his *La Liberté*, to a *tour de promenade* to Berlin, where, within a fortnight, they would enjoy a glass of absinthe "*unter den Linden*." In short, day after day, the easily excited Parisians were supplied with the most inflammatory appeals against the hated Prussians, until the well-known French "Chauvenisme" had worked itself into such a fever heat that it could only be cooled in the blood of the Prussian *tête de choucroute*.

The refusal of Napoleon III. at this time to gratify the

French longing for glory would have cost him his imperial crown. This evidently was Duke de Gramont's opinion when he insisted upon a personal apology from King William, while at Ems, in reference to the Hohenzollern occupation of the Spanish throne. King William, at this impudent demand, turned upon his heel and left the French Ambassador to his own construction of the interview. Thus was reached the culminating point between the two peoples. The next day, the 14th of July, 1870, Minister Beneditti was recalled and a declaration of war immediately made by the French.

History affords no parallel to the infatuation—bordering upon stupidity—with which the French entered into this war, the result of which, under the most favorable circumstances was doubtful. War Minister Lebœuf, who declared as to the fitness of the French Army to engage in a war with Germany, was either ignorant himself of the true condition of Napoleon's forces, or he had been deceived by the reports of his Department commanders. When, however, the actual facts came to light that the real strength of the army had been overestimated and its supply of ammunition, food and forage was insufficient for an offensive campaign, it was too late for Lebœuf to call a halt. Again, hostile demonstrations had been so open and avowedly in earnest as to surprise the ever-ready, watchful Prussian General Moltke. Napoleon III. had also fallen into the egregious error of supposing that the disaffection of the South German States would eventually redound to his favor. He pretended to know that Hanover, Saxony and Hesse-Cassel were only watching for a favorable opportunity to revenge themselves for the loss of their sovereigns and independence, and

would join in an attack against Prussia made by the French.

But instead of a distracted and dissatisfied country, he was met at the threshold by a united Germany—by a people ready to do and die for the common Fatherland. Bavaria, where the Ultramontane party had labored in vain to stem the patriotic impulse of the people, promptly fell into line, as did Württemberg, where the same treasonable influence had been at work. But, not only in Germany were the people aroused to united action, and to a determination, now and forever, to emancipate themselves from foreign dictation, but the Germans all over the globe were to a man in sentiment with their countrymen at home.

The German-Americans, more especially, furnished abundant proof of their devotion to their mother-country, and by enthusiastic public demonstrations, and by liberal contributions, lent to the cause their moral as well as material support.

The return of King William from Ems to Berlin was one continued ovation, and when the order for the mobilization of the German army came, it seemed as if the master hand of a great clockwork had pressed the spring and the colossal machinery was set in motion. With wonderful precision and astounding rapidity were the armed masses collected at the appointed *rendezvous*, and before Emperor Napoleon, who had prognosticated and planned a war of invasion, could complete his preparations, there stood before the gates of France 450,000 armed Germans.

King William left Berlin on the 25th of July, 1870, to take supreme command of the army in the field, which stood about as follows: The Seventh Corps from West-

phalia, and the Eighth from the Rhine province, were situated on the lower Rhine, and were commanded by General Steinmetz, and formed the right wing of the German army. The Royal Guards, commanded by Prince August, of Würtemberg; the Third Corps from Brandenburg, and the Fourth from Saxony, under Gen. Alvensleben; the Ninth from Schleswig-Holstein and Hesse, under Manstein; the Tenth from Hanover, Brunswick and Oldenburg under Voigts-Rutz; and the Twelfth, under Albert, Crown Prince of Saxony, stationed in the Palatinate, but ready to march either south or westward, formed the center, under the general command of Prince Frederick Charles. The Fifth Corps from Silesia and Posen, under Kirchbach; the Eleventh from Hesse, Nassau and Thuringia, under Bose; and the First and Second Bavarian Corps, under Von der Tann and Hartmann, with divisions from Würtemberg and Baden, all under the chief command of the Crown Prince of Prussia, formed the left. In addition to this force of 450,000 men, there were four corps, or 100,000 men, stationed in the interior, and pushing in forced marches toward the French frontier, besides 400,000 Landwehr, which could be called upon in case of need.

To this vast army of nearly a million men, France had but 300,000 to oppose it. But, infatuated to blindness, they still imagined that the march upon Berlin was possible. Emperor Napoleon himself appeared to be as eager for the fray as the rest of his countrymen. He began by attacking a small detachment of Prussian troops at Saarbrück on the 2d of August. He met little resistance here, the withdrawal of the Prussians causing Napoleon to send to Paris the most remarkable bulletins of the vic-



Großherzog von  
Baden.

Kronprinz  
Wilhelm

Kronprinz von  
Schweden

Prinz Heinrich

FUNERAL PROCESSION OF THE EMPEROR.



tory. It was upon this occasion that he penned to the Empress Eugenia the famous account of her son's "baptism of fire."

But on the 4th of August the work was begun by Prussia in earnest. It was the duty of the Prussian Crown Prince, with his troops from the South German States, to invade Alsace, and by passing through the Vosges turn the right of the French armies who were between the Saar and the fortress of Metz. Marshal MacMahon, with a force exceeding 40,000 men, stood in his path; but so swift and decided was the Crown Prince's movements that, on the 4th of August, he had advanced from Landau and Germersheim, attacked and defeated a division of MacMahon's corps at Weissenbourg, and on the 6th came up with MacMahon's main forces at Woerth, where the Bavarians, Würtembergers and Badeners gave proof of their devotion to the common cause by completely routing his army.

On the same day, General Kamecke, coming up with a part of the Seventh Army Corps, attacked General Frossard who held the steep height of Spichern, and after a stubborn resistance, drove him from the field towards Forbach. Thus, in the short time of two days, had the Germans not only frustrated Napoleon's plan of invading Germany, but had driven him to assume the defensive and compelled him to abandon a large strip of territory. His next move was to concentrate his armies to the rear. In the meanwhile glowing telegrams of victories had been sent to Paris, throwing the populace into a delirium of joy. But the true state of affairs soon began to be known, and when the news of the terrible reverses met by the army at last burst upon them, it was with great difficulty that a revolution against the Imperial régime was repressed, even at this early stage of the campaign.

But their cup of disappointment and bitterness had hardly received a drop compared to the stream that soon followed.

The invading army now formed a continuous, unbroken line. On the 14th, the first army under Steinmetz had advanced to the immediate vicinity of Metz; just in time to intercept the Third French Army Corps which covered the rear of General Bazaine's forces on their march toward Verdun. The bloody battle at Courcelles which followed, terminated disastrously for Bazaine, and compelled him to retreat under the walls of Metz. On the 16th, Bazaine made another effort to march to Verdun; but as the Prussians under General Alvensleben had taken possession of the village of St. Hilaire, on the Verdun road, and of the villages of Mars la Tour and Vionville, his movements were again interrupted, and the battles which were fought here were the most sanguinary of the war. The situation was held by 33,000 Germans against an overwhelming force of 150,000 French troops for the space of three hours, when 30,000 men were sent to their relief. At the most critical point of this battle, General Bredow, in charge of the cavalry brigade, composed of the Seventh Regiment of Cuirassiers and the Sixteenth Uhlans, received an order from General Alvensleben, to clear the edge of the woods in front of his infantry. The terrible scene which thereupon followed, forms the bloodiest and at the same time the most heroic episode of the Franco-Prussian war, and will stand in the annals of modern warfare as the worthy counterpart of the famous cavalry charge at Balaklava. "On they went," says an English account of the affair, "up to the batteries in front and took them; then fell upon columns of infantry and scattered them; then attacked a

battery of mitrailleuse, when two French cavalry regiments of cuirassiers were hurled upon them, and the Germans in their fatigue had to cut their way back along a pathway of blood. But half of them returned. The loss on both sides on that day was 15,000 killed and wounded.

Bazaine was now compelled to abandon his plan of marching to Verdun. Moving his exhausted troops to a position between Gravelotte and Privat-la-Montagne, he decided to give them a day's rest before attempting another engagement. But the following day the whole of the First and Second German armies had reached the left bank of the Moselle, increasing their effective strength to 200,000 men—the force which General Bazaine would have to cope with. This army was commanded by King William in person, with Prince Frederick Charles, Moltke, Boon, Steinmetz and Bismarck at his side. On the afternoon of the 18th, the great battle of Gravelotte, which was to decide the fate of the flower of the French army, and consequently of the French Empire, began. The Germans in pressing forward through the narrow defiles were literally mowed down and lay in heaps on the road-sides. At four o'clock, however, the right of the French army had been turned by the Guards and the Saxons, and now began the murderous assault upon St Privat, the key of the French situation. It was dark when the village was captured, and now followed the rout of the French army, which fled in disorder towards Metz.

This victory was purchased at an enormous sacrifice by the Germans. The French had fought with their old-time valor — that valor which at Austerlitz and Jena had given them world-wide fame. They had lost 12,000 men in killed and wounded, but had inflicted a loss upon the

Germans of 20,000, who were compelled to attack them in their own chosen position. Bazaine and his army had taken refuge in the fortress of Metz, and Frederick Charles with 160,000 men, was left to prevent his escape, while the rest of the army took up their march toward Chalons where it was supposed Emperor Napoleon and MacMahon had concentrated the remaining main strength of the French army. On the 25th the news reached the King, however, that MacMahon had left Chalons and was marching his army towards Reims, with the intention, it was conceived, of relieving Bazaine. Upon the advice of General Moltke the King promptly changed his march northward. On the 30th a French corps of MacMahon's command was surprised in their camp near Beaumont, which, although reinforced, ended in the defeat of the French and their withdrawal upon Sedan, where the final act of the great Napoleonic drama was to be played.

The events which immediately culminated in the surrender of Sedan, as well as the particulars of the surrender itself, were very graphically described in a letter written by King William himself to Queen Augusta, at Berlin. No other account gives a better description of the events than this, and, as it is also deeply interesting from a personal point of view, we shall give it entire. The letter, dated Vendresse, south of Sedan, September 3d, is as follows:

“You will have learned through my three telegrams the whole extent of the great historical event which has just taken place. It is like a dream, even when one has seen it unroll itself hour by hour; but when I consider that after one great successful war I could not expect anything more glorious during my reign, and that I

now see this act follow, destined to be famous in the history of the world, I bow before God, who alone has chosen my army and allies to carry it into execution, and has chosen us as the instruments of His will. It is only in this sense that I can conceive this work, and in all humility praise God's guidance and grace. I will now give you a picture of the battle and its results in a compressed form. On the evening of the 31st and the morning of the 1st, the army had reached its appointed positions round Sedan. The Bavarians held the left wing, near Bazeilles, on the Meuse; next them the Saxons, toward Moncelle and Daigny; the Guards still marching toward Givonne, the Fifth and Eleventh Corps towards St. Menges and Fleigneux. As the Meuse here makes a sharp bend, no corps had been posted from St. Menges to Donchery; but at the latter place there were Würtemburgers, who covered the rear against sallies from Mézières. Count Stolberg's cavalry division was in the plain of Donchery as right wing; the rest of the Bavarians were in the front toward Sedan.

“Notwithstanding a thick fog, the battle began at Bazeilles early in the morning, and a sharp action developed itself by degrees, in which it was necessary to take house by house. It lasted nearly all day, and Schöler's Erfurt Division (Reserve Fourth Corps) was obliged to assist. It was at eight o'clock, when I reached the front before Sedan, that the great battle commenced. A hot artillery action now began at all points. It lasted for hours, and during it we gradually gained ground. As the above-named villages were taken, very deep and wooded ravines made the advance of the infantry more difficult, and favored the defense. The villages of Illy and Floing

were taken, and the fiery circle drew gradually closer round Sedan. It was a grand sight from our position on a commanding height behind the above-mentioned battery, when we looked to the front beyond Pont Torey. The violent resistance of the enemy began to slacken by degrees, which we could see by the broken battalions that were hurriedly retreating from the woods and villages. The cavalry endeavored to attack several battalions of our Fifth Corps, and the latter behaved admirably. The cavalry galloped through the interval between the battalions, and then returned the same way. This was repeated three times, so that the ground was covered with corpses and horses, all of which we could see very well from our position. I have not been able to learn the number of this brave regiment, as the retreat of the enemy was in many places a flight. The infantry, cavalry and artillery rushed in a crowd into the town and its immediate environs, but no sign was given that the enemy contemplated extricating himself from his desperate situation by capitulation. No other course was left than to bombard the town with the heavy battery. In twenty minutes the town was burning in several places, which, with the numerous burning villages over the whole field produced a terrible impression.

“I accordingly ordered the firing to cease, and sent Lieutenant-Colonel Von Bronsart, of the General Staff, with a flag of truce, to demand the capitulation of the army and the fortress. He was met by a Bavarian officer, who reported to me that a French *parlementaire* had announced himself at the gate. Colonel Von Bronsart was admitted, and on his asking for the Commander-in-Chief, he was unexpectedly introduced into the presence

of the Emperor, who wished to give him a letter for myself. When the Emperor asked what his message was, and received the answer, "to demand the surrender of the army and fortress," he replied that on this subject he must apply to General de Wimpffen, who had undertaken the command in place of the wounded General MacMahon, and that he would now send his Adjutant-General, Reille, with the letter to myself.

"It was seven o'clock when Reille and Bronsart came to me, the latter a little in advance, and it was first through him that I learned with certainty the presence of the Emperor. You may imagine the impression which this made upon all of us, but particularly upon myself. Reille sprang from his horse and gave me the letter of the Emperor, adding that he had no other orders. Before I opened the letter I said to him, 'But I demand, as the first condition, that the army lay down its arms.' The letter begins thus — '*N'ayant pas pu mourir, à la tête de mes troupes, je dépose mon épée à votre Majesté,*' leaving all the rest to me. My answer was that I deplored the manner of our meeting, and begged that a plenipotentiary might be sent, with whom we might conclude the capitulation. After I had given the letter to General Reille, I spoke a few words with him as an old acquaintance, and so this act ended. I gave Moltke powers to negotiate, and directed Bismarck to remain behind in case political questions should arise. I then rode to my carriage and drove here, greeted everywhere along the road with loud hurrahs of the trains that were marching up and singing the National Hymn. It was deeply touching. Candles were lighted everywhere, so that we were driven through an improvised illumination. I arrived here at eleven

o'clock, and drank with those about me to the prosperity of an army which had accomplished such feats.

"As on the morning of the 2d I received no news from Moltke respecting negotiations for the capitulation, which were to take place in Donchery, I drove to the battle-field, according to agreement, at eight o'clock, and met Moltke, who was coming to obtain my consent to the proposed capitulation. He told me at the same time that the Emperor had left Sedan at five o'clock in the morning, and had come to Donchery, as he wished to speak with me. There was a château and park in the neighborhood, and I chose that place for our meeting. At ten o'clock I reached the height before Sedan. Moltke and Bismarck appeared at twelve o'clock with the capitulation duly signed. At one o'clock I started again with Fritz [the Crown Prince] and, escorted by the cavalry and staff, I alighted before the château, where the Emperor came to meet me. The visit lasted a quarter of an hour. We were both much moved at seeing each other again under such circumstances. What my feelings were — I had seen Napoleon only three years before at the summit of his power — is more than I can describe. After this meeting, from half-past two to half-past seven o'clock, I rode past the whole army before Sedan. The reception given me by the troops, the meeting with the Guards, now decimated — all these are things which I can not describe to-day. I was much touched by so many proofs of love and devotion. Now farewell! A heart deeply moved at the conclusion of such a letter.

WILHELM."

France suffered a terrible loss at Sedan. Eighty-four thousand men, one marshal, forty generals and 2,825 officers fell into the hands of the Germans, together with



Ueberführung von Kaiser Wilhelm's Leiche nach Charlottenburg.  
TRANSFERRING THE EMPEROR'S REMAINS TO CHARLOTTENBERG



330 cannon, seventy mitrailleuses, 10,000 horses, and an immense amount of war material and ammunition. But while this loss was severe, and the immediate effect extremely humiliating to France, it was no doubt proven a blessing in disguise.

Imperial Bonapartism and French Chauvanism were buried at Sedan in a common grave.

On the 31st of August, and also on the following day, General Bazaine at Metz made an unsuccessful attempt to break through the German lines. He was driven back with great slaughter.

On the 3d of September, Napoleon III., ex-Emperor of the French, was transported to Wilhelmshöhe, in company with Bismarck, a prisoner of war, and on the following day the Republic was proclaimed in France, with General Trochu, Jules Favre, Gambetta and Thiers as its provisional government.

The disasters of the war, and the collapse at Sedan, were attributed by the populace of Paris to the inefficiency of Napoleon, and to the general worthlessness of the military administration under the imperial régime. "*Tout n'est pas perdu*" (all is not lost), they encouragingly said to each other, and proudly pointing to the patriotic sacrifices of their ancestors under the First Republic, resolved, and proclaimed to the world, they would not cede an inch of territory nor a stone of their fortresses to the hated invaders, but would fight them to the bitter end.

Under these circumstances, the only way for King William to come to a definite settlement of the difficulties, was to march his troops right on to the French capital, to compel the new government to submit to his

own terms of peace;—a step which was at once taken, and on the 19th of September the investment of that immense and wonderful city, Paris, began.

When the facts are considered, that the line of circumvallation constructed by King Louis Philippe, at an expenditure of hundreds of millions of francs, and many years of industrious labor, and which is twenty-seven miles in extent, and also that a second line is formed by a large number of detached forts, some of considerable magnitude—at a distance of from one to four miles from the main wall—or, in all, a defensive line of at least fifty miles in extent, the seeming impossibility of investing and besieging such a city can be easily imagined. Paris, besides its population of nearly two million souls, contained 400,000 armed men.

The German armies investing the city, strongly intrenched and garrisoned by nearly half a million troops, numbered about 215,000 men of all arms. The bulk of the German forces was occupied in besieging the great fortresses of Metz and Strasbourg, and in preventing numerous French detachments that were constantly forming from marching to the assistance of their besieged countrymen. The proclamation of Gambetta for a war "*à l'outrance*" against the invaders had aroused the French people to a frenzied state of excitement, and in an incomparably short time he had succeeded in raising a formidable army in Southern France. The first Bavarian troops of the German forces and other detachments were sent against them, and in the battles which followed, from the 10th to the 17th of October, at Artenay, the French were defeated, at which time Orleans fell into the hands of the Germans. In the meantime, the Germans had achieved

a glorious success in the East. Strasburg, the ancient German city, which, through the treachery of King Louis XIV. had been wrenched from Germany two hundred years before, was surrendered by General Ulrich on the 27th of September. Seventeen thousand prisoners and a large amount of military stores fell into the hands of the Germans. General Werder, to whom the garrison had capitulated, now marched against the fortress of Schlestadt, compelling its surrender, clearing the whole of Alsace of the enemy's forces, and leaving a besieging detachment before the fortress of Belfort, which covered the passes to the Rhine. From here he continued his march towards Besançon and Dijon, in the Champagne district. But the powerful fortress of Metz still remained in the hands of the French. The investing army under Prince Frederick Charles was beginning to be decimated by disease, through exposure and unwholesome quarters. On October 7th, Bazaine had made another attempt to break through the chain of iron which kept him and his army prisoners, but the effort ended disastrously. For reasons yet unknown, but probably the latent ambition to play the rôle of savior of the Empire, he refused to recognize the French Republic, or any of its representatives, and entered on his own account into negotiations with Prince Frederick Charles. He offered to surrender the army, but not the fortress, adding these conditions: "That the Empire be restored." This demand being peremptorily refused, and his supplies being nearly exhausted, on the 27th of October he signed an unconditional surrender. One hundred and seventy-three thousand men, with three marshals and 6,000 officers, were made prisoners, and fifty-three eagles, 102 mitrailleuse, 3,000 guns and immense

quantities of military stores were the German trophies of that day.

The surrender of Metz relieved the army of Frederick Charles, and enabled General Moltke to send two corps, under the command of General Manteuffel, into the north of France, and to direct Prince Frederick Charles to proceed, with his remaining three corps, in forced marches to the Champagne and Burgundy provinces toward Troyes and Orleans, where the German General Von der Tann was in a precarious situation.

On November 8th, the latter was attacked by a large force and was compelled to evacuate Orleans. It was only with the greatest exertions that he escaped being captured or annihilated by the overwhelming numbers of French troops, who in streams were flocking under the standard of General Aurelles de Paladine, in command of the army of the Loire. But Prince Frederick Charles, with his 60,000 victorious troops from before Metz, appeared now on the the scene of action. After a number of minor but sanguinary engagements he advanced upon Orleans in force, and compelled the French to capitulate. During this time General Manteuffel, with his two corps from before Metz, had marched upon Amiens, which was held by 30,000 French troops; but not until after a bloody struggle was the place captured, on the 27th of November. The besiegers of Paris were now protected from serious interference by an army under General Werder in the vicinity of Dijon on the east, by Prince Frederick Charles at Orleans on the south, and by General Manteuffel at Amiens on the north.

In the extremity of their condition, the French began to look for help beyond the frontiers.

Their former arrogance had given place to humility. Like a resistless torrent the German armies now rolled over French territory, driving the enemies steadily before their columns. On the 12th, the army of the Crown Prince having cleared the passes through the Vosges mountains, and finding no further obstructions, was pushing on towards Chalons, when it came up and opened communication with the army of Prince Frederick Charles.

The day before, King William had moved his headquarters upon French soil, and issued the following proclamation to the French people :

“ We, William, King of Prussia, make known the following to the inhabitants of the French territories occupied by the German armies. The Emperor Napoleon having made, by land and by sea, an attack on the German nation, which desired and still desires to live in peace with the French people, I have assumed the command of the German armies to repel this aggression, and I have been led by military circumstances to cross the frontiers of France. I am waging war against soldiers, not against French citizens. The latter, consequently, will continue to enjoy security for their persons and property as long as they themselves shall not, by hostile attempts against the German troops, deprive me of the right of according them my protection. By special arrangements, which will be duly made known to the public, the Generals commanding the different corps will determine the measures to be taken toward the communes or individuals that may place themselves in opposition to the usages of war. They will, in like manner, regulate all that concerns the requisitions which may be necessary for the wants of the troops, and they will fix the rate of exchange between French and

German currencies, in order to facilitate the individual transactions between the troops and the inhabitants."

M. Thiers, the accomplished diplomat of France, pretending to seek recognition from foreign Powers for the Republic, started upon a pilgrimage to the courts of Vienna, St. Petersburg and London. His most importunate entreaties, however, in behalf of France, were met with polite but decided refusals. Upon his return the "extremists" succeeded in becoming masters of the situation, which resulted in the establishment of the Commune, and, as of old, during its short rule and final suppression another bloody page to the history of France was furnished.

The defeat, however, of the French armies at Orleans seemed not to have damped the ardor of Premier Gambetta in the least, but he realized that for the present the plan of attacking the besieging Germans in the rear must be abandoned. He was fertile in plans, however, and his next was the bold project of raising a new army in the southeast of France, and after crushing Werder's forces at Dijon to send an invading army into the south of Germany. To this end he ordered General Bourbaki to march his Army of the Loire toward Lyons, to join the troops collecting there. Simultaneously with the execution of this plan in the South, General Chanzy was also ordered to make a demonstration for the relief of Paris; but he was met on the 7th by the forces under the Grand Duke of Mecklenburg at Marchenoir and Meung, and on the 10th was accordingly driven from his purpose of delivering Paris from longer German investment. A few weeks later in a second attempt he crossed the path of Prince Frederick Charles, when he was defeated in a number of hotly contested engagements near Le Mans, losing



20,000 men, killed and taken prisoner. In the meantime the French army of the North, under General Faidherbe, had met a similar fate at the hands of the intrepid General Göben, who had succeeded Mantueffel in the command of the Germans at Amiens and Rouen. On the 19th of January Faidherbe's forces were attacked at St. Quentin, and completely routed with a loss of 10,000 men.

These encouraging reports from the interior of the enemy's country were very gratifying to King William, who had established his headquarters at Versailles; but both himself and General Moltke were somewhat apprehensive in regard to General Bourbaki's movements. This General had left Bourges about the middle of December, 1870, with the evident intention of overrunning Alsace. The only force to oppose him was Werder's Corps, which, on the 18th of December, had gained a victory over 20,000 of Garibaldi's Italian Volunteers. Appreciating the futility of contending in the open field against such overwhelming odds as Bourbaki would bring against him, Werder had retired slowly, but constantly fighting, to a strong position near Belfort. There he determined to make a stand in order to prevent the passage of Bourbaki's army, but to defeat his attempt to invade Germany at all hazards. On the 15th of January the enemy appeared in sight, and soon attempted a general assault upon Werder's position. But the Prussian needle-gun made such havoc in Bourbaki's ranks as to compel his withdrawal. On the 16th, and again on the 17th, the assault was renewed with the same disastrous result to the French. But the near approach of two German army corps, who, under General Manteuffel, had been sent to Werder's

relief, completed Bourbaki's discomfiture, who, in attempting to escape toward Lyon, was intercepted and almost surrounded on the road thither. The only alternative left to Bourbaki was to surrender his army to Manteuffel, or to cross with his army over the frontier into Switzerland. Choosing the latter, his 84,000 men marched over the line and were disarmed by the authorities of the little Republic, on February 1, 1871.

In the meantime matters about Paris had taken a favorable turn for the Germans. All the important and minor sorties which had been attempted by General Trochu had failed. On the 27th of December the bombardment of the city was begun, causing immense damages, and the calamities and terrors attending the siege of an overcrowded city were beginning to be felt in every household of the capital. But although horse-flesh had become a rarity, and rats were now counted among the delicacies of the *menu*, the fortitude of the unhappy inhabitants of Paris remained unshaken, and it was not until the corroborated news of the defeat and dissolution of the armies in the field had convinced them of the absolute needlessness of further resistance, that the word "surrender" with safety dared to pass any man's lips.

As a last extremity General Trochu and Gambetta decided to make one more, one supreme effort to break the cordon of the enemy's fire. On the 19th of January, under the protection of the guns of Mount Valerien, the most powerful fort in the line of fortifications, General Trochu drew up 100,000 men for the final desperate sortie. Fate was against him, however; 20,000 Germans barred his passage, and drove him, after fearful carnage, back under the guns of Mount Valerien. This last attempt having



—  
Kronprinz Friedrich Wilhelm und Gemahlin.  
Jetziger Kaiser Friedrich III. und die Kaiserin Victoria.  
Crown Prince Frederic William and Wife.  
Now Emperor Frederic III. and the Empress Victoria

failed, the army was discouraged and the *morale* of the people broken.

On the 23d of January, Jules Favre, in the name of the provisional government, proceeded to Versailles, and on the 28th an armistice of twenty-one days was signed; on the 29th, the now Emperor William I. telegraphed to Empress Augusta, at Berlin, as follows:

“Last night an armistice for three weeks was signed. The troops of the line and the mobiles will be interned in Paris as prisoners of war. The *Garde Nationale Sédentaire* undertakes the preservation of order. We occupy all the forts. Paris remains invested. It will be allowed to procure provisions as soon as the arms have been delivered up. A Constituent Assembly will be summoned to meet at Bordeaux in a fortnight. The armies in the field retain possession of the respective tracts of country occupied by them, with neutral zones intervening. This is the first blessed reward of patriotism, heroism and heavy sacrifices. I thank God for this fresh mercy. May peace soon follow!”

The conditions of the proposed treaty of peace were almost exclusively discussed by Count Bismarck on the part of Germany, and by Jules Favre and Thiers on the part of France. Bismarck's demands were the cession of Alsace, the German speaking portion of Lothringia, and the payment of five billion francs to Germany. With bated breaths and beating hearts the two statesmen listened to the humiliating and severe conditions of the Iron Chancellor. But not all the protestations and supplications—not even requests of representatives of foreign Powers—availed to modify these harsh conditions.

In the meantime the final act of the unification of

Germany had been performed at the city of Louis XIV. — the French King, who had done more to disrupt the Fatherland than any other foreign potentate before the advent of Napoleon I.

On the 18th of January, 1871, in the celebrated Hall of the Mirrors of the Louis XIV. royal chateau at Versailles, the *élite* of the German army still before Paris, assembled to witness King William's coronation as Emperor of Germany. A splendid galaxy of officers of the different armies and grades stood up in a semi-circle, awaiting the arrival of the King and his suite.

Soon his majesty, followed by the Crown Prince Frederick William, the princes of the Empire and the generals of the army, all in full uniforms, entered the hall, the King taking his position upon the elevated center of the hall. After a somewhat lengthy and imposing religious ceremony, Count Bismarck, upon a sign from the King, stepped to the front, and with loud sonorous voice read the following proclamation :

“ We, William, by the Grace of God, King of Prussia, hereby announce that the German Princes and Free Towns having addressed to us a unanimous call to renew and undertake, with the re-establishment of the German Empire, the dignity of Emperor, which now for sixty years has been in abeyance, and the requisite provisions having been inserted in the Constitution of the German Confederation, we regard it as a duty we owe to the entire Fatherland to comply with this call of the united German Princes and Free Towns, and to accept the dignity of Emperor. Accordingly, we and our successors to the Crown of Prussia henceforth shall use the Imperial title in all the relations and affairs of the German Empire, and we hope to God

that it may be vouchsafed to the German nation to lead the Fatherland on to a blessed future, under the auspices of its ancient splendor. We assume the Imperial dignity, conscious of the duty to protect with German loyalty the rights of the Empire and its members, to preserve peace, to maintain the independence of Germany, and to strengthen the power of the people. We accept it in the hope that it will be granted to the German people to enjoy in lasting peace the reward of the arduous and heroic struggles within boundaries which will give to the Fatherland that security against renewed French attacks which it has lacked for centuries. May God grant to us and to our successors to the Imperial Crown, that we may be the defenders of the German Empire at all times; not in martial conquests, but in works of peace in the sphere of national prosperity, freedom, and civilization."

The treaty was ratified by the French Assembly at Bordeaux, which by resolution, also, formally deposed Napoleon III., declaring him the individual most responsible for all the misfortunes, the ruin, the invasion, and the final dismemberment of France.

It is one of the defects of human nature, to attribute the results of our own blindness and shortcomings to instruments of one's own making. The cry "*A Berlin! a bas les Prusse!*" came from the press, politicians and the population of Paris, and not from Napoleon III.; he simply followed the cry because he could not help himself.

On the 3d of March, when the victorious armies had taken up their return march to Germany, the terms of surrender having been arranged, the garrison of Paris and the forts surrendered to the Germans. To complete France's humiliation, 30,000 Germans entered the gates of

the great city. Marching past the *Arc de Triomphe*, where, upon plates of brass, the French victories over the Germans at Austerlitz, Friedland, Jena, etc., are recorded, they proceeded along the *Champs Elysées* as far as the *Place de la Concorde*, playing the whole way the "*Wacht am Rhine*." This performance was looked upon in sullen silence by the populace. Bismarck, sitting upon his charger, witnessed this scene of his final triumph for an instant, after which he hurriedly rode back to Versailles.

Emperor William telegraphed from Versailles to Berlin: "I have just ratified the conclusion of peace, it having been accepted yesterday by the National Assembly in Bordeaux. Thus far is the great work complete, which by seven months' victorious battles has been achieved, thanks to the valor, devotion and endurance of our incomparable army in all its parts and the willing sacrifices of the whole Fatherland. The Lord of Hosts has everywhere visibly blessed our enterprises, and therefore, by His mercy, has permitted this honorable peace to be achieved. To Him be the honor; to the army and the Fatherland I render thanks from a heart deeply moved."

On the 7th, the Emperor and his staff left Versailles, and on the 16th, at the head of his victorious armies, the triumphal entry into Berlin took place.

The war had lasted 210 days. During this comparatively short period three great French armies were taken prisoners, and another forced to take refuge in Switzerland. Seventeen great battles, and 156 minor engagements were fought. Twenty-two fortresses were taken by the Germans, 7,200 pieces of artillery, 600,000 small arms, and 385,000 prisoners, including 11,360 officers.



The final treaty of peace, including the conditions already stated, was concluded at Frankfort, on the 10th of May, 1871.

Late at night on the 18th of August, Bismarck penned this telegram to Queen Augusta, at the dictation of the King: "The French army in a very strong position westward of Metz, attacked, completely beaten after a battle of nine hours, cut off from its communication with Paris, and hurled back on Metz."

Dr. Busch gives the following graphic recital from Count Bismarck's own lips of his experiences on that awful day: "The whole day I had nothing to eat but the soldiers' bread and fat bacon. Now we found some eggs—five or six. The others must have theirs boiled; but I like them uncooked, so I got a couple of them, and broke them on the pommel of my sword, and was much refreshed. When it got light, I took the first warm food I had tasted for six-and-thirty hours; it was only pea-sausage soup, which General Goeben gave me, but it tasted quite excellent. . . . I had sent my horse to water, and stood in the dusk near a battery, which was firing. The French were silent, but when we thought their artillery was disabled, they were only concentrating their guns and mitrailleuses for a last great push. Suddenly they began quite a fearful fire, with shells and such like—an incessant cracking and rolling, whizzing and screaming in the air. We were separated from the King, who had been sent back by Roon. I stayed by the battery, and thought to myself, 'If we have to retreat put yourself on the first gun-carriage you can find.' We now expected that the French infantry would support the attack, when they might have taken me prisoner, unless the artillery carried

me away with them. But the attack failed, and at last the horses returned, and I set off back to the King. We had gone out of the rain into the gutter, for where we had ridden to the shells were falling thick, whereas before they had passed over our heads. Next morning we saw the deep holes they had ploughed in the ground.

“The King had to go back farther, as I had told him to do, after the officers had made representations to me. It was now night. The King said he was hungry, and what could he have to eat? There was plenty to drink — wine and bad rum from a suttler — but not a morsel to eat but dry bread. At last, in the village, we got a few cutlets, just enough for the King, but not for anyone else, so I had to find out something for myself. His Majesty wanted to sleep in the carriage, among dead horses and badly-wounded men. He afterwards found accommodation in a little public-house. The Chancellor had to look out somewhere else. The heir of one of the greatest German potentates (the young Hereditary Grand Duke of Mecklenburg) kept watch by our common carriage, that nothing should be stolen, and General Sheridan and I set off to find a sleeping place. We came to a house which was still burning, and that was too hot. I asked at another — ‘Full of wounded soldiers.’ In a third, also full of the wounded. In a fourth, just the same, but I was not to be denied this time. I looked up and saw a window which was dark. ‘What have you got up there?’ I asked. ‘More wounded soldiers.’ ‘That we shall see for ourselves.’ I went up and found three empty beds, with good and apparently fairly clean straw mattresses. Here we took up our night quarters, and I slept capitally.”

Once more the Germans showed their great superiority in all that concerns the strategical aspect of war.

The people of Germany, and more especially of Prussia, had now become fully conscious that the solicitude with which Emperor William during his whole lifetime had been watching over the military establishments of the country, had at last borne its fruit. They now, also, recognized the fact, that they had erred in refusing to furnish him the means he had called for for the reorganization of the army, and felt thankful for his unswerving adherence to his patriotic convictions in spite of their opposition. The "geographical expression," of the Germany of pre-Napoleonic times had now become a reality, thanks to the foresight of Emperor William I., and the oversight of the Iron Chancellor, Bismarck. The Germans soon began to understand the power of nationality, and the peace which followed was fraught with great industrial and intellectual progress.

On the 21st of March, 1871, the Parliament of United Germany opened its sessions. On this occasion Emperor William in his opening speech gave a hint to the Catholic representatives, who had begun to agitate the restoration of the Pope's temporal power, as follows:

"The new Empire," he said, "takes its birth from the self-subsisting spirit of the people itself, which, never taking up arms except for defence, is steadfastly devoted to the works of peace. In its intercourse with foreign nations, Germany demands for her citizens no greater consideration than what justice and civilization involve, and uninfluenced by liking or disliking, leaves it to every nation to find its own way to unity, to every State to determine for itself the form of its constitution. We trust that the days of interference in the life of other nations will never, under any pretext or in any form, return."

On the 14th of April, 1871, the Reichstag ratified the constitution of the German Empire, and, on the 4th of May following, the constitution went into force.

X [The question is often heard, "What is the difference between the Landtag, Bundesrath and Imperial Diet, etc.?" and, in order that the general reader may understand the construction and functions of the legislative bodies called the Reichstag and Herrenhaus, etc., in Germany, the author will attempt an explanation by first saying that the constitution of Germany is not analagous to that of the United States. The Imperial Diet is the Reichstag, and constitutes the legislative branch of the German Empire, and may be compared to our National House of Representatives. It has the power to originate and, with the consent of the Bundesrath, to enact national laws. The members are elected for three years, in the ratio of one representative for every 10,000 inhabitants; but a State having less than 100,000 inhabitants is entitled to but one representative. The members receive no compensation. They are elected by the voters of each State at large. Every German twenty-five years old, of active citizenship, has a right to vote in the State in which he was born. The Bundesrath is the highest executive and administrative power in the Empire. Its principal features were created by the Norddeutsche Bund of 1867, and incorporated into the constitution of 1871. It has peculiarities which do not permit of its being likened to our Senate or the upper house of any assembly; nor is it a purely executive body. It resembles a council of States, and is now composed of fifty-nine members, the delegates of the several States, which, under the supremacy of Prussia, compose the German Empire. Prussia sends

Kronprinz Wilhelm und Gemahlin.  
Crown Prince William and Wife



seventeen delegates, Bavaria six, Würtemberg four, Saxony four, Saxe-Weimar and Brunswick two each, the other States but one each. The Bundesrath has power to decide upon the legislative measures to be proposed to the Reichstag; on the rules and regulations to be adopted in the administrative and executive branches of the Empire; in other respects it has some of the powers of the executive. The members of the Bundesrath have the privileges of the floor in the proceedings of the Imperial Diet, and on pending questions to take part in the debates. In case the delegates of a certain State are unable to carry a measure in the Bundesrath, they may submit the question to the Imperial Diet or Reichstag. The Bundesrath and Reichstag, therefore, form the Imperial Government of Germany. The postal service, the army and navy are under their administration. The executive branch, the third branch of the Imperial Government, is represented by the executive officer, the Emperor, who has the right to appoint a Chancellor of the Empire, whose duty, among others, is to receive foreign ambassadors and officials, and with the consent of the Emperor to appoint representatives of the German Empire — Bavaria excepted — to other foreign countries. The Emperor can only declare war for the German Empire in case German territory is invaded by foreign foes. With the affairs of a single State the German government has nothing to do. The states are autonomous, each having its own sovereign and constitution. As, for instance, Prussia is governed by her king, Frederick III., who was also chosen in 1888 by the German sovereigns, Emperor of Germany. Prussia has her Parliament, consisting of a Chamber of Deputies and House of Lords (Herrenhaus), together called the Landtag.

The members of the two Chambers are the representatives of the whole State of Prussia, not of a district. They are not expected to vote for a constituency nor to give a reason for their votes. No member can be prosecuted during the time the Chamber is in session. Each Chamber draws up its own rules by which it is governed. The Herrenhaus is composed of the princes of the blood who have reached their majority, hereditary members and members appointed for life. The number is not limited; the members must have reached the age of thirty years, and can receive no salary nor indemnity of any sort. The Chamber of Deputies consists of 432 members, elected for three years. The governments of Bavaria, Würtemberg and the other German States, have their separate Landtags, formed of two houses, the same as Prussia.]

X The majority of the German Parliament, hand in hand with the Emperor, now entered heartily into the work of regeneration.

The next great question in order was the act of incorporation of Alsace and Lorraine into the Empire. Prince Bismarck knew that his measure would meet with opposition in Parliament, and from the following speech which he delivered on the 3d of May, his expectations on this subject are set forth:

“Ten months ago no one in Germany desired war, but all were determined, if it should be forced upon us, to carry it through, and to obtain guarantees against a recurrence of attacks by France. France, possessing Alsace, continually threatened Germany. On the 6th of August, 1866, the French ambassador handed me an ultimatum demanding the cession of Mayence to France, and telling us, in the alternative, to expect an immediate declaration



of war. It was only the illness of the Emperor Napoleon which then prevented its outbreak. During the late war neutral Powers made mediatory proposals. In the first instance we were asked to content ourselves with the costs of the war and the razing of a fortress. This did not satisfy us. It was necessary that the bulwark from which France could sally forth for attack should be pushed farther back. Another proposal was to neutralize Alsace and Lorraine. But that neutral State would have possessed neither the power nor the will to preserve its neutrality in case of war. We were obliged to incorporate Alsace with the territory of Germany in order to insure the peace of Europe. It is true the aversion of the population of Alsace and Lorraine is an obstacle to such a measure. Still, the population is thoroughly German, forming a sort of aristocracy in France by virtue of its *noble and Teutonic qualities*. We shall strive to win back to us this population, by means of Teutonic patience and love. We shall especially grant communal liberties. The Federal Council will carefully examine all amendments proposed by the Reichstag. Let us work together with mutual confidence."

The act of incorporation provided that the government of Alsace and Lorraine be vested exclusively in the Emperor until January 1, 1874, when the constitution of the German Empire was to be introduced and the provinces form an integral part of the German realm. The act was passed with the almost unanimous vote of the assembly.

Prince Bismarck, the new Chancellor of the Empire, was thereupon appointed by the Emperor governor of the annexed provinces. Thus was the act of restitution

completed by which Germany was repossessed of a portion of her territory which had been forcibly taken from her nearly two hundred years before by Louis XIV. There is great waste of sentiment in the united states over this rightful restitution performed by Emperor William I., on the ground that it was accomplished without leave or consent of the re-annexed provinces. One might as well complain about the injustice of returning a child to its rightful mother from whom it was stolen while a helpless babe. The original title of the provinces was with Germany, and both justice and the law of self-preservation demanded their restitution to the mother country.

## CHAPTER XII.

### EMPEROR WILLIAM'S ECCLESIASTICAL WAR.

ALL difficulties in the path of Germany's unification and peaceful progress had now been apparently overcome. Victories had been obtained through iron and blood for the repossession and retention of territory; but during the debates upon the King's address and the annexation act, evidences were not wanting to show that some secret force, and, as afterward appeared, the same force which had been in operation in Germany for centuries, was again at work, but under a new guise.

As we have repeatedly shown, the supremacy of Protestant Prussia in Germany was exceedingly distasteful to the Roman hierarchy. The fact that the Roman Catholic Church was recognized in Prussia as a legal institution, that it stood in every respect upon an equal footing with the Protestant Church, that its schools and universities were supported by the State the same as those of the Protestants, and that religious instruction was given to Catholic children by Catholic priests paid out of the general fund, did not seem to count a penny's weight against the demands of the ecclesiastical hierarchy. These demands were nothing short of the absolute control of the educational institutions of the country. But Prince Bismarck, supported by the King, stood like a rock against these assumptions; and, being aware of the ultramontane efforts in the different parts of Germany in furtherance of this pet scheme, of the efforts of the Jesuits to stir up dissatisfaction against the imperial government and opposition to the proposed

unification of the whole of Germany, and, also, that the pulpit was prostituted for political agitation, at the meeting of the National Diet in 1872 he was not able to repress his indignation when Dr. Windhorst, the spokesman of the Ultramontane party, complained of the loss of Catholic power and influence in matters of educational moment.

Springing to his feet, in a ringing speech he administered the following well-directed rebuke:

“When I returned from France to devote myself to home affairs,” said he, “the Clerical or Centre party, which had just been formed, seemed to me a party whose policy was directed against the predominance and unity of the State. I will not conceal from you that the Government had hoped to rely upon the assistance of the orthodox element in the people. I thought it had a right to expect that they, above all, would render unto Cæsar the things that are Cæsar’s. Instead of this we find ourselves systematically withstood in the South, and most violently attacked in the papers and in speeches destined for the instruction of the lower classes. This conduct is the more extraordinary inasmuch as the Pope and the Prussian bishops of the Catholic Church have repeatedly acknowledged the perfect liberty their co-religionists enjoy under our institutions. In their downright hostility, therefore, the Ultramontane party can not be actuated by dissatisfaction at the position the Catholic Church holds, and indeed has long held among us. Unfortunately, we are at no loss to account for their motives. When we find this party leaguings with Radicals of every shade of persuasion—when we find them acting in concert with men whose extreme politics make them avowed enemies of the Prussian Constitutional Monarchy and of the German Imperial

Commonwealth — we need not wonder at their drifting into persistent opposition, and placing us in the painful position in which we now stand with regard to them.”

This speech had the effect of an immediate declaration of war against clerical assumption in Germany, and was followed by the introduction of a School Inspection bill, by which the supervision of all educational institutions were intrusted to the State. After a long and acrimonious debate, in which Windhorst and Bismarck were the principal champions, the bill passed with the small majority of 197 against 171 votes.

In the Upper House, the debates upon this bill elicited very damaging facts against Windhorst and the clerical party. Among the many compromising documents read by Bismarck, the following dispatch from an Imperial representative abroad created the greatest indignation:

“The revenge,” it said, “for which people are panting in France is being prepared for by getting up religious troubles in Germany. It is intended to cripple German unity by denominational discord, for which purpose the whole of the clergy are to be utilized under immediate orders from Rome. In connection with the overthrow of German power, the Pope hopes to be able to reëstablish his secular power in Italy.”

Referring to this dispatch, Prince Bismarck said: “Need I point out who our enemies are? While two Catholic Powers existed on our borders, each supposed to be stronger than Prussia, and more or less at the disposal of the Catholic Church, we were allowed to live in peace and quiet. Things changed after our victory of 1866, and the consequent ascendancy of the Protestant dynasty of Hohenzol-

lern. And now that another Catholic Power has gone the same way, and we have acquired a might, which, with God's help, we mean to keep, our opponents are more embittered than ever, and make us the butt of their constant attacks."

This plain language of the German Chancellor exasperated Windhorst and the Catholic Party beyond measure. The conflict had, however, but just begun, and the exposé of this ecclesiastical duplicity formed one of the principal grounds of justification for most of the anti-clerical laws that were in course of preparation.

Another event occurred, just at this time, which aggravated the situation, and widened the breach between Germany and the Vatican.

It was the latter's rejection of Cardinal Hohenlohe, who had been appointed by the Emperor as ambassador to Rome, upon the pretense that the Cardinal was an opponent of the Pope's infallibility dogma. This inimical action of the Vatican was resented by Prince Bismarck, in a speech before the Reichstag, May 14, in which he severely criticised this extraordinary proceeding of the Pope, taking the ground that he should always reject any treaty with Rome in which the Papacy might claim that certain state laws should not be binding upon a portion of the subjects of the Empire. The most animated discussion, however, in reference to this Ultramontane controversy, took place in the Reichstag upon the introduction of the bill for the expulsion of the Jesuits from Germany. The bill was passed, however, and after having been signed by the Emperor, it was promulgated on July 4, 1872. It read as follows:

"We, William, by the grace of God, Emperor of Ger-

many, King of Prussia, etc., in the name of the German Empire, with the assent of the Federal Council, and of the Parliament, ordain as follows: I. The Order of the Society of Jesus, as well as the monastic orders of Congregations affiliated to the said Society, are excluded from the territory of the German Empire. The creation of establishments by them is forbidden. Establishments of theirs at present existing shall be suppressed within a period to be settled by the Federal Council, but not later than six months. II. The members of the Order of the Society of Jesus or of Orders and Congregations affiliated, may, if aliens, be expelled from the territory of the Confederation. If they are natives, their residence in certain districts, or certain places, may be forbidden or prescribed to them. III. The Federal Council will take the measures necessary for securing the execution of this law. In faith of which we have set our hand and seal Imperial."

The justice of this act was not questioned by any but the most extreme Ultramontanes. When, however, it is considered that under the influence and perseverance of the Society of Jesus, the number of convents in Prussia had increased from 69 in 1855 to 826 in 1869, with 8,319 inmates—Pius IX., himself being compelled thirty years before to expel the Jesuits from Rome—the Pope's displeasure at this act of the Emperor lacked every element of consistency. His denunciatory epistles of the measure, sent to the priests throughout Germany created a spirit of antagonism against the constituted authorities, bordering upon insubordination. This ecclesiastical revolt against the liberalizing tendencies of the Imperial Government took the form of organization in the consolidation of all Catholic societies into the "Catholic Union

at Fulda," in the following September—the place of the monastery and school founded by Winfried in 750 A. D. There it was boldly declared that canon laws were more binding upon the citizens than those enacted by legislative assemblies, and that the Church was rightfully supreme in educational affairs and in marriage contracts.

While the clerical party—which, oddly enough, was supported by the socialists—was thus engaged in attempting to rejuvenate the theories of the dark ages, the reputed "despotic" government of King William of Prussia submitted a bill to the Prussian House, conferring upon the people of towns and villages the blessings of local self-government. The adoption of this measure at a time of great reactionary activity, and in spite of the nobility and landed aristocracy, formed an epoch in the life of the German people and one of the brightest pages in the history of these two remarkable men, Emperor William I. and Premier Bismarck. The Kultur-Kampf (Ecclesiastical War) had now assumed serious proportions in Germany. It was the old question of the Franconian and Hohenstaufen right of rule in their own domain. It appeared that the question, whether Emperor William or Pius IX. was henceforth to rule Germany, could not long remain unanswered. Accordingly, in January, 1873, Dr. Falk, the minister of education, introduced into the German Diet four very important bills, the main features of which were, "freedom of religion," "State protection to the clergy against arbitrary acts of their superiors, and the requirement, that henceforth, all candidates for the priesthood must attend a State—that is, lay-university." These acts produced the greatest consternation in the ranks of the clerical party. The Catholic bishops entered



a solemn protest against their enforcement, and resolved upon their resistance, whereupon the State instituted criminal proceedings against a number of the most recalcitrant bishops. These trials resulted in the conviction of Archbishop Ledochowski, and the imposing of a sentence of four months' imprisonment upon his Grace. Thus far, the conflict between Church and State had been waged between the representatives of the Vatican and the Imperial Government. But now Pope and Emperor appeared upon the scene of action.

On the 7th of August, 1873, his Holiness wrote to the Emperor that, having heard the harsh measures adopted by the German government against the Catholic clergy had not yet been approved by him, he desired to warn him of the danger threatening the Empire in case they should be carried into execution. "I speak with frankness," said Pius IX., "for my banner is truth. I speak in order to fulfill one of my duties, which consists in telling the truth to all, even to those who are not Catholics; for everyone who has been baptized belongs, in some way or other—which to define would be here out of place—belongs, I say, to the Pope."

On the 3d of September, nearly one month after the receipt of the above, Emperor William transmitted to the Pope the following reply:

"I am glad your Holiness has, as in former times, done me the honor to write to me. I rejoice the more at this since an opportunity is thereby afforded me of correcting errors which, as appears from the contents of your letter, must have occurred in the communications you have received relative to German affairs.

"To my deep sorrow, a portion of my Catholic sub-

jects have organized, for the past two years, a political party which is endeavoring to disturb, by intrigues hostile to the State, the religious peace which has existed in Prussia for centuries. Leading Catholic priests have unfortunately not only approved this movement, but joined in it to the extent of open revolt against existing laws

"It will not have escaped the observation of your Holiness that similar indications manifest themselves at the present time in several European and some Trans-Atlantic States. It is not my mission to investigate the causes by which the clergy and the faithful of one of the Christian denominations can be induced actively to assist the enemies of all law; but it certainly is my mission to protect internal peace, and preserve the authority of the laws in the States whose government has been intrusted to me by God. I shall maintain order and law in my States against all attacks as long as God gives me the power; I am in duty bound to do it as a Christian monarch, even when to my sorrow I have to fulfill this royal duty against servants of a church which I suppose acknowledges no less than the Evangelical Church, that the commandment of obedience to secular authority is an emanation of the revealed will of God. Many of the priests in Prussia subject to your Holiness disown, to my regret, the Christian doctrine in this respect, and place my government under the necessity, supported by the great majority of my loyal Catholic and Evangelical subjects, of extorting obedience to the law by worldly means.

"I willingly entertain the hope that your Holiness, upon being informed of the true position of affairs, will use your authority to put an end to the agitation carried

on amid deplorable distortion of the truth and abuse of priestly authority. The religion of Jesus Christ has, as I attest to your Holiness before God, nothing to do with these intrigues, any more than has truth, to whose banner, invoked by your Holiness, I unreservedly subscribe. There is one more expression in the letter of your Holiness which I can not pass over without contradiction, although it is not based upon the previous information, but upon the belief of your Holiness—namely, the expression that every one who has received baptism belongs to the Pope. The Evangelical creed, which, as must be known to your Holiness, I, like my ancestors and the majority of my subjects, profess, does not permit us to accept in our relations to God any other mediator than our Lord Jesus Christ. This difference of belief does not prevent me from living in peace with those who do not share mine, and I offer your Holiness the expression of my personal devotion and esteem.”

The publication of this letter was received with demonstrations of approval by a majority of the people of Germany.

On the 7th of December, the Emperor, as King of Prussia, issued a decree, making it obligatory upon the bishops to take the oath of allegiance to the King before assuming their functions. This unfortunate conflict between State and Church continued to prevail with greater or less severity until 1882, when, from some cause not yet explained, Bismarck appeared to wish to be upon more amicable terms with Rome, and when Herr Windhorst brought in a bill for the repeal of the law prohibiting the exercise of clerical functions without the sanction of the State, Bismarck did not oppose the motion, and it was

concurred in. Another bill, in substance allowing foreign priests to officiate in Germany, was also favorably acted upon, and further, in order to narrow the chasm between Germany and the Holy See, 90,000 marks, about \$20,000, were appropriated to defray the expense of a Prussian Catholic representative to the Vatican.

Later on, the anti-clerical enactments, known as the May laws, were almost wholly repealed, and this circumstance is often quoted by the adversaries of the Chancellor in support of the charge that he had made a "trip to Canossa." This charge however, when calmly and impartially investigated, is found to be without foundation in fact.

The object of Prince Bismarck in not having his State policy in reference to the annexation of Alsace and Lorraine and other political measures any longer interfered with by ecclesiastical intrigues had been accomplished. The Pope himself having mildly rebuked Mr. Windhorst for his over-officious zeal in matters not strictly ecclesiastical, the provisions of the May laws had become superfluous. The principal point, however, that is, the control over the appointment of candidates to clerical positions in Prussia, has never been relinquished by Prince Bismarck.

That the relations of Prince Bismarck and the present Pope are of the most amicable nature, the fact that the settlement of the Caroline Islands difficulty in 1886 was placed in his Holiness' hands by Bismarck, is ample evidence. Upon the peaceable conclusion of the matter, the Pontiff sent the Prince the decoration of the "Order of Christ." Upon the receipt of the diamond cross, Bismarck replied: "As your Holiness has expressed it, the Romish pontificate could not be better fitted than for just

such mediatory services in the peaceful settlement of difficulties between nations as that just performed between Germany and Spain, and for this very reason I had called upon your Holiness for interposition. The fact that the attitude of the two countries toward your Holiness in matters of religion was not the same never weakened my confidence in your impartiality. The relations between Germany and Spain are such that the existing feeling of friendliness could not lastingly be disturbed, and I was, therefore, most confident that the work of your Holiness would secure permanent friendly relations between us."

In conclusion, Bismarck assures the Pope that he would embrace every opportunity to show the gratitude his kind offices have earned for him when not inconsistent with his duty to his master and country.

#### SOCIALISTIC WAR.

The next question that appeared to agitate the Imperial parliament was the repressive measures required against the Socialists. This question greatly embittered the declining years of Emperor William's life. The situation was fraught with many perplexities; although painfully conscious of the many hardships to which the laboring classes were subjected, peace and good order compelled him to sanction with his signature, the anti-socialistic laws adopted by the German Diet. But the sentiments of his heart were expressed when, in a rescript to the Reichstag, he said: "I deem it one of the first duties of the Emperor to turn his attention and direct his care to the improvement of the condition of the laboring classes," and later on insisted, "that legislation upon this question should not be limited to police and penal meas-

ures, but should be directed to the removal of the causes of oppression in the realm."

The socialistic propaganda, headed by Karl Marx and Ferdinand La Salle, had developed into a political power before the establishment of the Empire, and the humanitarian intentions of the Emperor had little effect upon the progress of the anarchist wing of the party. So zealous had they become, that an attempt was made upon the Emperor's life on the 28th day of September, 1883, at the unveiling of the Niederwald Monument. The culprit, Reinsdorf, had employed a man to place a stone bottle containing dynamite, upon the road upon which the Emperor was to pass. The man employed did not light the match, and therefore the Emperor's life was saved.

This atrocious act naturally hastened the reënactment of former repealed anti-social laws, and the adoption of others more severe, and prolonged for two years those that were to terminate the following September. On the 18th of May, the famous "Explosive" bill was passed, which made the ordering of explosives with the willful intent of endangering life and property, as well as the delivering of inflammatory speeches, and the publishing of incendiary pamphlets, crimes punishable with imprisonment, and if followed with fatal results, punishable with death.

These laws seemed only to increase the believers, and socialism had made such headway in Germany in 1884 that many of the representatives of the Government were found to be connected with either one or the other of the various socialistic organizations; as for instance, Bebel, Von Vollmar, Auer, Frohme, Dietz, Viereck, Ulrich, and others—the first five being members of the German

Reichstag, the other two journalists were indicted upon the charge of having taken part in the socialistic congress held in Copenhagen from March 29 to April 2, 1883, and, also, at the Chateau Wayden, Switzerland, in August, 1880. The proofs against them were the minutes of the meetings, in the hands of the prosecuting attorney, and numerous articles published in the *Social Demokrat* of Switzerland. The indictment went on to say that there existed in Germany a social-democratic organization, the members of which were punishable under the criminal code; that the resolutions passed at the two congresses favoring a firmer organization, the collection of a fund for agitation and publication, and, also, for the support of the victims of the law against socialism, were all offenses indictable under this provision of the code; that the *Social Demokrat* recommended secrecy, and that the language "the infamous law against socialists in Germany compels us to hold our meetings upon foreign soil, and because the detectives are wide-awake we recommend to you extreme caution," is against the laws; that there were sixty delegates present, most of whom were registered under false names at the hotels; that their participation in this unlawful movement is established, as well as their intention to consolidate the organization and to promote the principles of socialism in Germany, all of which is contrary to the paragraphs of the criminal code referred to.

Thus, were laws enacted and executed against the right of the citizen to assemble and the most obnoxious press-laws—which laws have retarded the intellectual and political progress of Germany for a century—the fruits of the insane ravings of a handful of crack-brained

theorists in this endeavor to annihilate individual genius, thrift and enterprise, and to merge the country into the communistic despotism, called "The State."

One of the most extraordinary acts of the Prussian Government under William as King of Prussia, was the expulsion of 35,000 Poles from Prussian soil—many of them landed proprietors and thrifty artisans, ruthlessly driven from their homes. The subject having been brought before the German Parliament, Prince Bismarck took the ground that Prussia's local legislation was not subject to confederate control. The only explanation the Government deigned to give was that these expulsions were the simple execution of Prussian police regulations. During this same session the Ultramontanes, supported by the Socialists, introduced a Sunday law. In opposition, Prince Bismarck delivered one of his characteristic speeches. He emphatically denied the proposition that workmen would be benefited by such a law, or that the industrial prosperity of England and the United States was due to the English Sabbath. "England," said he, "would not to-day enjoy so great an industrial superiority over Germany if her coal fields and her iron mines were not in close proximity to each other, and if she had not enjoyed the blessings of civilization long before Germany did. Even in the time of Shakespeare, about 300 years ago, there was a degree of prosperity, culture and literary development in England far above what we possessed at that time in Germany. The Thirty Years' War had a retrograde effect upon Germany more than on any other nation. But I can not admit that Englishmen are better Christians than the Germans. If the keeping of the Sunday had not been from time immemorial an



English custom, I doubt very much if any Government or Parliament would now be strong enough to make it compulsory. For my own part, however, the English Sunday has always produced an unpleasant impression upon me; I was glad when it was over, and, judging by the way the Sunday was passed in England, I think that Englishmen were so, too. Here, in our villages, we are glad to see the people enjoying themselves in their Sunday best, and we thank God that we are not under the compulsion of the English Sunday. Some forty years ago I went to England for the first time, and I was so glad to land, after a bad passage, that I whistled a tune. 'Please don't do that,' said a fellow passenger. 'Why not?' I inquired. 'Because it is Sunday!'"

These bold expressions of Bismarck were the sentiments of the majority of Germans—for Germans the world over are opposed to Sunday restrictions—and therefore, very naturally, the bill was defeated.

## CHAPTER XIII.

### EMPEROR WILLIAM I. AS A MAN.

**I**T IS not an easy task to impartially judge the personal character of a man born to occupy an exalted sphere of action, and whose tender years were hedged about by the conventional conditions of a prospective king; a man, in other words, of whom little is known that is not intended to be known. But the late Emperor William seems to have been a striking exception to the rule. Born with an original and sturdy nature, his artificial training appears not to have destroyed, but rather strengthened, these characteristics.

The school of adversity in which his early years were spent—the loss of his sainted mother, coupled with the ever-present fear of loss of ancestral domain—gave to his mind a peculiarly devotional cast, which is clearly seen in his after letters, and is emphasized in the following preserved paper, written at the age of eighteen, and entitled his “Precepts of Life”:

“With a thankful heart I acknowledge God’s great beneficence in permitting that I should be born in an exalted station, because thereby I am better enabled to educate my soul and heart, and am put in possession of copious means wherewith to build up worthiness in myself. I rejoice in this station—not on account of the distinction it confers upon me amongst men, nor on account of the enjoyments it places at my disposal, but because it enables me to achieve more than others. In humility I rejoice in my station, and am far from believing that God

has intended, in this respect, to put me at an advantage over my fellow-men. I am equally far from considering myself better than anybody else on account of my exalted station. My princely rank shall always serve to remind me of the greater obligations it imposes upon me, of the greater efforts it requires me to make, and of the greater temptations to which it exposes me.

“I will never forget that a prince is a man—before God, only a man—having his origin, as well as all the weaknesses and wants of human nature, in common with the humblest of the people; that the laws prescribed for general observance are also binding upon him; and that he, like all the rest, will one day be judged for his behavior. For all good things that may fall to my share I will look up gratefully to God; and in all misfortunes that may befall me I will submit myself to God, in the firm conviction that He will always do what is best for me. I know what, as man and prince alike, my duty is to true honor. I will never seek honor to myself in things illusory. My capacities belong to the world and to my fatherland. I will therefore work uninterruptedly within the circle of activity prescribed to me, make the best use of my time, and do as much good as it may be in my power to do.

“I will maintain and keep alive within me a sincere and hearty good will toward all men, even, the most insignificant—for they are all my brethren. I will not domineer over anybody in virtue of my princely dignity, nor bring to bear upon any one the pressure of my princely prestige. When compelled to require any service at the hands of others, I will do so in a courteous and friendly manner, endeavoring, as far as in me lies, to render the fulfillment

of their duties easy to them. But, in accordance with my own duty, I will do all I can to destroy the works of hypocrisy and malignity, to bring to scorn whatever is wicked and shameful, and to visit crime with its due measure of punishment; no feelings of compassion shall hinder me therefrom. I will, however, be careful not to condemn the guiltless; on the contrary, for me it shall ever be a labor of love to defend the innocent.

“To the utmost of my ability I will be a helper and advocate of those unfortunates who may seek my aid, or of whose mishaps I may be informed—especially of widows, orphans, aged people, men who have faithfully served the State, and those whom such men may have left behind them in poverty. Never will I forget the good that has been done to me by my fellow-men. Throughout my whole life I will continue to value those who have rendered me service.

“For the King, my father, I entertain a respectful and tender affection. To live in such sort that I may be a joy to him will be my utmost endeavor. I yield the most punctilious obedience to his commands. And I entirely submit myself to the laws and constitution of the State. I will perform my service—duties—with absolute exactitude, and whilst assiduously keeping my subordinates to their duty, will treat them amicably and kindly.”

The heroic period of his youth, also, offered a superior school for the growth of his manly qualities, a school which has been opened to few men since the days of Charlemagne and Barbarossa. The death struggle of the nations of Europe, to maintain their integrity and independence against the overreaching ambition of a military genius of which the world has produced no equal, the

waves upon waves of armed men rolling over half a continent and by the tide of events rolled back again, the roar of the modern machinery of destruction, the gigantic minds met in deadly combat to retain all that a man holds dear in life, principles, home and country — these were the events which daily engrossed his attention.

The earnest activity and sterling qualities of such men as Stein, Scharnhorst and Blücher, who had been charged with the preservation of the State, could but leave a lasting impress upon his young and plastic mind. He came early to understand that a life of leisure and luxury had its demoralizing and enervating effect upon both body and mind, and holding to the precept of his ancestor, Frederick the Great, "that he belonged to the State rather than the State to him," he deemed it his duty to foster and preserve the physical vigor and moral strength required of one destined to his high and exalted position.

Accordingly, we read that his daily habits were those of a man with a purpose in life.

He had little taste for the levities and follies of court ways, spending fourteen out of his twenty-four hours in the various tasks of his great office; and it is related of him that, believing himself called upon to serve as an example to his army, of order and readiness for action, he was always dressed in his uniform and military boots, or, until the later years of his life, when, under the advice of his physician, he exchanged his heavy military trappings for the lighter official garb.

In order to show the discipline to which he had subjected himself for almost eighty years, the following details of his daily habits for the last few months of his life are here given:

At seven o'clock in the morning a valet entered the Emperor's bedroom with a small cup of tea, which he drank before rising. In former times it had been his custom to rise when he felt that he had slept enough, and to go at once to his dressing-room; but of late he had made it his habit to lie in bed for an hour and a half after waking. At half past eight he arose, and with very little assistance dressed himself. He had three personal servants, who took turns in waiting upon him for twenty-four hours at a time. These were his wardrobe man, Engel, and his two valets, Ukermaker and Krause. At nine the Emperor went to his library, where he breakfasted, usually on tea and toast. On Tuesdays and Fridays, however, breakfast was served about twenty minutes earlier than usual, and by nine o'clock he was in his study, where he received the report of the president of police. On other days, the Emperor did not begin work until twenty minutes after nine. His first business was to open letters and sign documents. Punctually at ten Herr von Wilmowski, the chief of the civil cabinet, arrived for a brief interview, and from that hour audiences succeeded audiences until half past twelve, when he took his second breakfast. This consisted invariably of a basin of plain soup and some meat of an easily digestible kind. The menu for breakfast and dinner was drawn up by a physician in consultation with the cook, and then submitted to the Emperor, who generally made some slight alterations; but there is no foundation for the stories that have been told of his inordinate fondness for hot boiled lobsters and crabs. The doctors had ordered the Emperor to drink a glass of good old Bordeaux with his breakfast as well as with dinner; but he cared little for wine and generally deluged his Bor-

deaux with the national Selzer water. When the guards of the palace were relieved, the Emperor seldom failed to appear at the well-known window to return the salutations of the crowd which was always assembled without. After the second breakfast there were more audiences and interviews, until it was time for the daily drive. He usually returned about 3 o'clock and at once resumed work. Between three and five the higher officials of the Emperor had audience and at five dinner was announced. It lasted an hour, and immediately afterward the Emperor went back to his study, when for an hour he read the newspapers of the day or had passages from them read to him. At seven he ordered his carriage, and, if he had nothing more important to do, went either to the theater or to the opera. He always had been a great lover of the drama, and was very unwilling to allow anything to interfere with his evening enjoyment of it; yet, for many years he had made it his rule never to go to the theater while the body of one of the leaders of his armies or of any old political servant lay unburied. When the Emperor returned from the theater, tea was served, and some time was spent in social conversation, but at about 10 o'clock he went once more to his study to give attention to any pressing matters that might have come up during the day. After having disposed of these he went to his room and at 11 o'clock the valet of the day left him, taking away the lamp and leaving a lighted night-lamp on the table by the bed-side. The Emperor slept uncommonly well, and the tinkle of the electric bell which rings in the neighboring room in which sits the valet on duty was very seldom heard during the night.

He was very fond of corn-flowers and liked to have a

vase of them filled on his study table, and he often declared jocosely, that if there were no corn-flowers, there would be no work done. Flowers for this vase were, therefore, specially grown in a hot-house at Potsdam all the year round. For making marginal notes upon public documents, the Emperor generally used a very thick pencil. These also were specially prepared for him; but for years he used an ordinary carpenter's pencil, and he only relinquished it when it was represented to him that the softness of the lead caused his writing to smear and become illegible. Emperor William never smoked nor took snuff, and any spare moments that were at his disposal during the day, were spent with the Empress, in whose presence he was always most punctilious and attentive. At the time of the attempted assassination by Noebeling, in 1878, the Empress was in very bad health, and she was unable to go to her husband's room until some days after the event. At last she dragged herself down stairs to his apartment, ejaculating "how happy I shall be to see you again!" The Emperor, whose room was full of officers, and whose door was open, heard her, and laughingly shouted, "Well, come along, wife; come along!" And when the Empress appeared, both burst into tears. The Emperor had very simple, suave manners, but he was not interesting, and had not much conversation. In this respect he contrasted with Bismarck, who can be a delightful boon companion, because he has so much to say, and says it in such an original way.

Emperor William's countenance went a long way in giving charm to his address, whereas the countenance of the Chancellor has often gleams of savage ferocity, and shows that the cunning of a wild animal can be united to intellect. At different times, and on noteworthy occasions



both master and man could be seen together. The Emperor was to the observer much more a puzzle than Bismarck. There were moments when he struck one as being somewhat the apparent *bon homme*, leaving things to Bismarck with a private intent to do as he pleased. He liked to be on good terms with Providence, to be true to his principles, and to set a good moral as well as military example to his armed nation.

Taking all in all, Emperor William was the finest specimen of the old gentleman that could be imagined. If he lived in soldiers' uniform from the age of seven to ninety-one, and was a strict disciplinarian to himself, he was free from buckram and pipe-clay. His smile was inviting.

The Emperor let the ladies of his family be as exacting as they pleased, except in military affairs or politics. Nor would he have minded their interfering with the latter if Bismarck had not stood out against the "petticoat camarilla."

William remembered his mother's virtual Kingship of Prussia—to its advantage. Then he rather enjoyed yielding to female despotism. His weakness in this respect made the Chancellor wage a relentless war on the Empress and her tea-party cronies. The "Victorias" were his pet animosities.

Though not miserly, the Emperor loved thrift and plain living. What he spent on himself was trifling. His household was kept up on the economical lines dear to his ancestors. The Crown Prince's income was small. The Empress had often to make the birthday gifts she wanted to present to friends and relatives, her private purse was so slender. So had the Crown Princess. She gave pict-

ures of her own painting. Her mother-in-law gave standard works in which were bound blank sheets filled up by her with autograph annotations. The Emperor thus grew comparatively wealthy. When Prince of Prussia he was fond of romping games and practical jokes in the home circle. He had a sense of fun and of humor. In music, of which he was very fond, he preferred Weber to Wagner.

Notwithstanding the order in which Emperor William kept his papers, he left quantities of letters in a cupboard at the Versailles prefecture, where Mme. Thiers found them. Hundreds of them were letters from French victims of the war or exasperated patriots. They were all annotated in the Emperor's handwriting. The marginal observations were creditable in the extreme to him. In noting complaints of how Prussian soldiers had harried villages, he said, "This must be put a stop to." In another letter he was accused of waging a wicked war, so he wrote: "This may be true. God give me light." There were notes of orders for money to be sent to some families which had been burned out of house and home."

True to his profession when a mere boy, he steadily continued to value those who had rendered him service. He was devotedly thankful to Prince Bismarck for the great services that statesman had performed both for him and his country. He never failed to honor him when an opportunity to do so presented itself, and was not to be outdone by the people in their demonstration of admiration and gratitude for the great Chancellor.

On the 1st of April, 1885, Prince Bismarck celebrated his seventieth birthday. It was made the occasion of festivals and rejoicing all over Germany. They all felt that, although he had been a hard task-master, the country owed

him much. He was the recipient of many testimonials of esteem and good will, and at the close of that day he must have retired with the satisfactory resumé in his mind that if he was cursed by a few, he was loved and honored by the many.

The most prominent of his admirers who improved the opportunity to present him with a testimonial of their gratefulness was Emperor William himself, who, in company with the Crown Prince and other members of the family paid Prince Bismarck a friendly visit, and presented him with a reduced copy of Von Werner's great painting, "The Proclamation of the Empire at Versailles," accompanied by the following autographic letter from the Emperor:

"My Dear Prince—The German people having shown a warm desire to testify to you, on the occasion of your seventieth birthday, that the recollection of all you have done for the greatness of the Fatherland lives in so many grateful hearts, I, too, feel strongly impelled to tell you how deeply gratified I am that such a feeling of thankfulness and veneration for you moves the nation. I am rejoiced at this, for you have most richly earned the recognition, and my heart is warmed at seeing such sentiments manifested in so great a measure; for it dignifies the nation in the present, and strengthens our hopes of its future, when it shows appreciation of the true and the great, and when it celebrates and honors its most meritorious men. To me, and to my house, it is an especial pleasure to take part in such a festival; and by the accompanying picture, we wish to convey to you with what feelings of grateful recollection we do this, seeing that it calls to mind one of the greatest moments in the

history of the House of Hohenzollern—one which can never be thought of without at the same time recalling your merits.

“ You, my dear Prince, know how I shall always be animated towards you with feelings of the fullest confidence, of the most sincere affection, and the warmest gratitude; but, in saying this, I tell you nothing which I have not often enough already repeated to you, and methinks that this painting will enable your latest descendants to realize that your Kaiser and King, as well as his house, were well conscious of what they had to thank you for. With these sentiments and feelings, which will last beyond the grave, I end these lines.

“Your grateful, faithful and devoted Kaiser and King,  
WILHELM.”

This was the proudest moment in the life of the great statesman. For it was more than the formal acknowledgment of a grateful sovereign—it was a proclamation to the present and to coming generations, by the crowned representative of the German people, that by honoring in Bismarck truth and greatness, they honored themselves.

Two years later, on the 22d day of March, 1887, Emperor William celebrated his own birthday. It was his ninetieth, and was the last he enjoyed on earth. The day was enthusiastically commemorated, not only in Germany, but wherever the German tongue is spoken.

That the German people had a profound and ardent love for the Emperor is a fact that was patent to everybody who lived for any length of time among them. They admire and respect Bismarck, but they also fear him. The great Chancellor never had the knack of making himself a place in the public heart. It is said that even

in the princely family circle love is somewhat strongly flavored with awe. But with the Emperor it was quite otherwise. Not only was he the object of love on the part of his family, but the same feeling was found throughout the Empire and among all classes of people. Whenever the Emperor returned from opening the new Prussian Parliament to the old palace, the Linden was lined with people on both sides, and as his majesty drove by the entire multitude would stand with uncovered heads. There was no mistaking the sentiment with which these people regarded the man.

Fredrick Schiller's sentence in his great poem, "The Bell," "*Das Werk es soll den Meister loben,*" ("The work shall praise its master"), never found a more appropriate application than in the instance of the founder of the new German Empire.

## CHAPTER XIV.

### DEATH AND BURIAL OF EMPEROR WILLIAM I.

AT THE beginning of March, 1888, the aged Emperor was found to be suffering from an affection of the mucous membrane of the throat and irritation of the membrane of the eyelids—the general symptoms of a cold, to which were added, after a few days, painful abdominal disorders, in consequence of which his appetite materially diminished. Becoming greatly weakened through his disinclination to receive nourishment, but a few days had passed before he fell into frequent fainting fits. The morning of March 7 brought the certainty to the attending physicians that the Emperor could not recover. His real ailment was *renal calculus*, which is the cruelest of all kidney diseases.

The Grand Duchess of Baden, the Emperor's daughter, and her husband, and the Crown Princess of Sweden, the Emperor's granddaughter, were telegraphed for, and arrived the following morning.

At midnight there had been no change for the worse, but not until then had the Emperor been able to sleep. Morphia had been administered; but during the night he had frequent and serious fainting fits. The doctors were unable to wake him to administer food until late in the afternoon.

On the morning of the 8th the Emperor spoke a few words to Prince William about the impending drill of the guards, but in a wandering manner.

Prince Bismarck tried to speak to him, but it was useless. The Emperor soon fell into a swoon, and his pulse, which was usually 57, rose to 108 and he had a fever. About midday he became conscious and the sacrament was administered. At noon all the members of the Imperial family except the crown prince and crown princess were in a room adjoining that occupied by the Emperor. At 12:25 Court Chaplain Kögel gave the last sacrament to the Emperor. Before this he had been occasionally delirious.

The Empress and the Grand Duchess of Baden remained with the Emperor throughout the night. At one o'clock the next morning the Emperor's voice was so strong that it could be heard outside his room. He was given oysters and egg and a little champagne and sherry. He was fully conscious, showing an interest in what was passing around him. He asked the Grand Duchess of Baden, who sat by the bed, whether she had already dined and with whom, and then asked why she had not dined with the Empress." He expressed regret that he was "causing so much trouble" — a gentleman to the last. An immense but silent crowd stood near the palace all day, notwithstanding the fact that a cold rain was falling. The palace was guarded by cavalry. Business in the city was virtually suspended and the theatres were closed.

Divine service was held in the palace at 5 o'clock. All the members of the Imperial family, the Court dignitaries, and the members of the household were present. Hundreds of people stood bareheaded in the rain outside the Palace and joined in the prayers offered by Chaplain Kögel.

Prince Bismarck went to the bedside at five o'clock

and the Emperor spoke to him. It was the parting moment between friend and friend, rather than king and subject, and so Prince Bismarck seemed to consider it. From this hour on, with few lucid moments, the Emperor passed the night, dying at 8 o'clock A. M., March 9th.

He was buried March 16th, at noon, in the Royal Mausoleum, of Charlottenburg, his remains being placed between the tombs of his father and mother — that mother whose memory he worshiped with a reverence so profound and tender that he was often heard sadly repeating to himself the couplet, said to have been written by her at the cottage where she passed the night on her flight to the East of Prussia,

" Who never ate his bread with tears,  
Who never sat through nightly hours  
Upon his bed, a prey to fears,  
He knows you not, ye Heavenly Powers."

The grand and imposing funeral, which lacked what should have been its most interesting feature—the presence of the new Emperor and King, Frederick III., who was compelled by the state of his health and by the severe weather to remain within the palace at Charlottenburg—was attended by kings and royal princes, and by representatives of all European nations, as well as of Germany, and was especially a demonstration of patriotic loyalty on the part of the capital and kingdom of valiant Prussia.

The body of the aged monarch lay in state at the Domkirche or cathedral of Berlin from Monday, the 13th, to Thursday night, on a catafalque erected in front of the altar, covered with purple velvet, having an ermine border. The Emperor's head, on a white silk pillow, was covered with his military cap, the body clad in the uni-



form of the First Regiment of the Guards, and wrapped in the gray military cloak. The decorations on the breast were the star of the Black Eagle, the order *Pour le Mérite*, and the Grand Cross of the Iron Cross suspended from the neck. At the feet was deposited a laurel wreath. By the catafalque were placed five tabourets, with the crown, insignia and orders of the late Emperor. On each side were three large candelabra, each holding thirty lighted wax tapers. An immense mass of floral wreaths, some of huge size, and of every variety of design, accumulated round the catafalque. The highest court dignitaries and officials and generals of the Prussian army kept guard over the body of their sovereign. The whole interior of the church, its columns as well as the altar and pulpit, had been draped in black. It was densely thronged with visitors coming in and going out. The Empress Victoria, the Crown Prince and others of the imperial family early visited the church; the Crown Prince returned with the officers of his Hussar regiment of Guards. The Prince of Wales, on Thursday, with Prince Albert Victor and the Duke of Cambridge, paid his reverence to the body of the deceased Emperor; so did the Crown Prince of Austria, the Czarewitch, the King of the Belgians, the King and Queen of Roumania, the Crown Princes of Denmark and of Sweden, and the German Grand Dukes and Princes.

The streets and public edifices of Berlin, as the day of the funeral approached, put on their garb of mourning.

The funeral ceremonies began with a religious service in the Cathedral, performed by the Rev. Dr. Kögel, the Court Chaplain, assisted by other clergymen. The high Court officials and Ministers of State, except Prince Bismarck, stood at the tabourets around the bier; the Em-

press Victoria, with the Princesses of the Imperial family, the Queen of Roumania and other ladies of royal or princely rank, occupied seats to the left of the altar; the King of Saxony, King of the Belgians, King of Roumania, Imperial and Royal Crown Princes, Grand Dukes and many other Princes, to the right. After the benediction, the soldiers outside fired three salutes; and the military officers, General Von Pape commanding the Guards, and his aides-de-camp, General Von Lehndorff and Prince Radziwill, with drawn swords, took their post at the head of the coffin, while deputations from several Prussian, Bavarian, Saxon and Würtemberg regiments drew up at its foot. The coffin was then raised by twelve Colonels, and carried, preceded by the royal Chamberlains and the State Ministers, bearing the imperial insignia, followed by the Imperial banner, to the royal hearse, while four Knights of the Order of the Black Eagle held the corners of the pall, and the Generals carried the baldaquin above the royal coffin. The organ continued playing whilst Her Majesty and the royal family took their places in the funeral procession. The procession then started, amidst the pealing of all the bells of the town, over the Castle bridge, through the center promenade Under den Linden, through the Brandenburg Gate, as far as the Sieges-Allee. It was escorted by squadrons from eight cavalry regiments, with trumpeters, seven battalions of infantry (the Guards), with regimental bands, and twelve guns of field artillery. The Royal household preceded the different "insignia," the Electoral Sword and Hat of Brandenburg, the Order of the Black Eagle, the Imperial Seal, Sword, Globe and Sceptre, and the Royal Crown, each carried by a Minister of State.

Then came the hearse, drawn by six black horses, led by Staff Colonels, with Generals holding the pall and baldachin. The late Emperor's war-horse was led behind it. General Von Pape bore the Imperial banner of white silk with a black eagle. The foreign Kings, Crown Princes, German Grand Dukes and Royal Princes, walked together, mostly wearing their hats and cloaks, followed by Ambassadors, Generals, and officers of their suites. The Imperial Chancellor, Prince Bismarck, and Field-Marshal Count Moltke, could not join in the procession; but the Councillors of State, the Presidents of the German Reichstag and Prussian Landtag, the heads of the Government offices and of the Church, and deputations from the Universities, magistracy, provincial councils and municipalities passed in due order. In rear of the procession were more infantry and artillery. The line of route from the Cathedral to the Sieges-Allee was kept by various guilds of the town, and by students of the German Universities. The widowed Empress Augusta saw the procession from a window of the Old Palace.

At the Sieges-Allee, in the Thiergarten, the imperial and royal personages, with many others of rank, left the procession and entered their carriages to drive on to Charlottenburg. The Empress Victoria and the Crown Prince, and others of the Imperial family, had reached the palace and were with the Emperor, who looked out from an upper window to see the procession go through the park to the mausoleum. It passed through a long avenue of pine and fir trees, to that small marble building, at the door of which the coffin was taken from the hearse and carried in. The chief mourners, the Empress Victoria, the Crown Prince and Prince Henry, and the Grand Duchess of Baden,

with their friends, then entered the mausoleum. The walls inside were decorated with wreaths of flowers. The Rev. Dr. Kögel said over the coffin a few prayers and a blessing. Finally, the Empress and all the other mourners, one by one, knelt by the coffin in silent prayer. At their departure, a salute of 101 guns was fired by the artillery in the park.

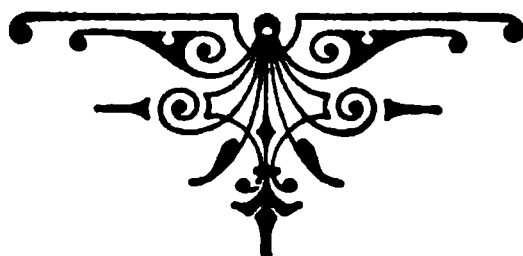
In his will, written by himself, the late Emperor William, according to the *National Zeitung*, left only 24,000,000 marks, \$6,000,000, of which sum the Empress receives \$750,000, the Grand Duchess of Baden, the Crown Prince and Princess, and Prince Henry each \$250,000, the latter receiving also an estate purchased for him. Of a sum of \$250,000 saved by the Emperor, the Emperor Frederick is to receive, according to a clause inserted in the will in the sixtieth year of the late Emperor's life, \$93,000, and the Grand Duchess of Baden \$62,000. The Crown Treasury is to receive \$3,000,000, the remainder being absorbed by various other bequests. To the Hall of Glory the following objects: The sword which he carried from 1810 to 1834, the sword he carried in the battle of Königgrätz, July 3, 1866, and all through the Austrian and Franco-German wars, its blade having the names of the principal battles engraved upon it; the sword carried by him on parades, the sword inherited from his brother, King Frederick William IV.; all his decorations for military merit, together with the presents received on his military jubilees, and his gold and silver laurel wreaths; and finally the sword carried by his father in the unlucky days of 1806 and during the Napoleonic wars, which during the Emperor's lifetime (as distinctly added by him) always stood by his writing-desk in the historic corner

room of the Royal Palace. As a souvenir, the Lichterfelde Corps of Cadets received the sword presented to the Emperor at St. Petersburg in 1834, and carried by him until the morning of the day of Königgrätz. Finally the Emperor ordered the uniforms of all the regiments of which he was the honorary commander, to be distributed to the respective regiments.

*"Vale, Senex Imperator."* Such was the touching farewell of the people of Berlin to the sovereign who raised their city to be the capital of United Germany. All that was mortal of him had passed from their midst, but his spirit and work remain as a priceless heritage for them and the whole German people. This is what gives to the late ceremonial its deep historical significance. It was no mere court ceremonial, such as invest with pomp and circumstance the burial of an ordinary sovereign who has succeeded to a secure throne and occupied it with peace and prosperity. It was a whole nation's mourning for a man who first made it one with itself. The Emperor William was no man of genius in the ordinary sense, and his military capacity is not to be compared with his ancestor, Frederick the Great; but he had the inestimable gifts in a ruler of good sense, of simplicity of character, of unswerving fidelity to the interests of his country, of untiring industry in the discharge of his public duties. "I have no time to be tired" was one of his last utterances. "My life is on the decline," said Frederick the Great a short time before his death, "the time which I still have I must employ. It belongs not to me, but to the State." In these two utterances of two great Hohenzollerns we have the true spirit of the Hohenzollern race, the spirit which has raised the Hohenzollerns to the

throne of Prussia, and Prussia to the hegemony of Germany. It was to this spirit that the whole German nation did homage in its mourning for its lost Emperor. It recognized in him the best representative of its own earnestness, its own native piety of disposition, its own firm grasp of reality, its own homespun integrity, its own love of the Fatherland, its own passionate aspirations after national unity and greatness, its own patient endurance of the labors, trials and perils which those aspirations entailed. For this reason the noise of the mourning of a mighty nation has resounded throughout the world — for Germans are everywhere — and has met with a heartfelt response from all who honor true greatness and respect a people's sorrow ; for United Germany may well say of its first Emperor with the poet, he was

‘ Great, yet with least pretence,  
Great in council and great in war,  
Foremost captain of his time,  
Rich in saving common sense,  
And as the greatest only are,  
In his simplicity sublime.” ’



## CHAPTER XV.

### "UNSER FRITZ."

UPON the death of Emperor William I. his only son was at once proclaimed Emperor of Germany and King of Prussia under the title of Frederick III. He was at San Remo at the time when his father fell ill, and was unable to be present at his bedside when the end took place. But immediately afterwards, and in spite of the precarious condition of his own health, he left San Remo to assume his new duties at Berlin. He issued the usual proclamation to his subjects (supplementing it with a letter to Prince Bismarck), in which he shadowed forth a programme of educational and social reforms for the Empire, but also indicated with sufficient clearness that his foreign policy would be one of peace. He was unable, however, owing to inclement weather, to be present at his father's funeral or to go through the usual ceremonies in the Prussian Diet and the German Reichstag, attendant on the assumption of sovereignty.

As has been before stated, Frederick III. was the only son of the late Emperor of Germany, and was born at the palace of Potsdam, October 13, 1831. He was, consequently, about eighteen years old at the breaking out of the revolution in Germany, in 1848, and was an interested witness of the stormy scenes of this period. This fact, coupled with the circumstance that he was educated from the first for a military life, helped to prepare him for the great part he was destined to perform in the unification of Germany.

At the same time, it was, perhaps, as well for a time at least, that the young Prince was not thrust very prominently forward either in political or military life; this saved him from losing that love of domesticity which forms the chief if not the sole relief from the pressure of the military life in Germany. It was not till the mind of his uncle gave way, and his father was, in consequence, appointed Regent, that the young Prince became a personage in the public life of his country. Three years later his father ascended the throne as William I., and he, in consequence, became popularly known as the Crown Prince of Prussia. Meanwhile, he had risen to the position of General in the army. An event, however, had by this time occurred, which although neither political nor military, was yet of no inconsiderable importance from the standpoint not only of Germany, but of Great Britain, and was his marriage with the Princess Victoria Adelaide, the oldest daughter of Queen Victoria, of England. Prince Frederick was twenty-six years of age and the Princess seventeen. It is said to have been a love match from the first, and the union proved a singularly happy one, the Prince and Princess having many tastes in common; and when the war broke out the Princess had an arduous task to perform, and one very different from that to which her life in England had accustomed her: she had to take her place by her husband's side, almost literally in the field. She was, however, able to perform her part with perfect success. In consequence, she became as great a favorite in Berlin as she had previously been in London. The issue of the marriage were seven children — Frederick William Victor Albert, born January 27, 1859, who, popularly known as Prince Wil-



liam, and married to the Princess Victoria of Schleswig-Holstein Augustenburg, now succeeds to his father's position; Victoria Elizabeth Augusta Charlotte, born July 24, 1860; Albert William Henry, born August 14, 1862; Frederick Amelia Wilhelmina Victoria, born April 12, 1866; Joachim Frederick Ernest Waldemar, born February 10, 1868, (now dead); Sophia Dorothy Ulrica Alice, born June 14, 1876; and Margaret Beatrix Feodore, born April 22, 1872.

It was not till the year 1866 that the Crown Prince of Prussia was enabled to show the practical value of the training he had received in the art of warfare. For military, and perhaps also for family reasons, he took no part in the war which broke out in the Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein, between the Kingdom of Denmark on the one hand and Austria and Prussia on the other. But (as has been seen in a former chapter) in June, 1866, the conquerors of Denmark, Prussia and Austria quarreled. The Crown Prince and his relative, Prince Frederick Charles, were appointed to the command of the two armies which Marshal von Moltke sent forward for the invasion of Austria. The Crown Prince's part in the campaign was of the most difficult, yet also most brilliant, description. He led his troops, numbering 125,000 men, from Silesia through the passes of the frontier into Bohemia, an operation attended with the greatest difficulty.

One of the engagements that took place, known as the battle of Nachod, threatened to have somewhat serious consequences for the Crown Prince. The advance guard of the Prussian army was forced to retire by the fire of the Austrian artillery, and two squadrons of dragoons, ordered to stop an Austrian Cuirassier regiment, were

driven back like chaff. "Confusion," says one eye-witness, "seemed to cover the advance, and the Crown Prince, entangled in the whirl, was for a moment unable to extricate himself from the mass of dismounted dragoons, loose horses, infantry columns, artillery and ammunition wagons, mingling with each other in the narrow and steep pass. The first moments of surprise over, the Crown Prince ordered up artillery to his right, and in the course of the day upwards of eighty guns were in position at one time, sweeping the ground which sinks from Wysokow downwards towards Skalitz. The Austrians, whose sole purpose during the day had been to turn the Prussian right, were driven back step by step, until at four o'clock the whole of Steinmetz's Corps had debouched, fighting, out of the Pass of Wysokow." The Crown Prince gained another victory at Skalitz, this time over the Archduke Leopold of Austria. Finally, he was able to interfere, and with decisive effect, at the battle of Sadowa or Königgrätz, which took place on the 3d of July.

This great battle, which decided the supremacy of Prussia in the affairs of Germany, has been described in Chapter X., page 384 of this volume.

When the Franco-German War broke out, in 1870, it was natural that the Crown Prince should be appointed to a prominent position of command. He was charged with the task of invading France through Alsace and Lorraine. [See page 413.]

For his eminent services to his country and father during this memorable campaign the latter conferred upon him the highest military dignity known in the German Army, that of Field-Marshal General.

The autograph letters of the Emperor, accompanying the promotion, read as follows:

“VERSAILLES, October 28, 1870.

“Whereas, in consequence of the capitulation of Marshal Bazaine and the surrender of the fortress of Metz, the two armies that had been arrayed against the joint forces of Prussia and Bavaria in July last, at the opening of a war which was entirely unprovoked by us, have fallen prisoners to their foe, I feel myself constrained to mark this important pause in the hostilities by an act of special significance. In bringing our difficult task to a successful issue, you have had a prominent part; first, at the opening of the campaign, by two victories in rapid sequence; next, by covering the left flank of the main body by a strategical advance, that it might proceed in security to attack the army of Bazaine; further, by effecting a junction of your division with the Grand Army to follow up the operations against Sedan; and now, finally, by proceeding to invest Paris itself; every one of which achievements serves to betoken a great and successful commander. It is only fitting, therefore, that you should be promoted to the very highest military rank, and accordingly I hereby appoint you Field-Marshal General.

“It is the first time that this distinction (which at the same time, I confer upon Prince Frederick Charles) has ever been borne by a prince of our line. But the successes achieved in this campaign are of so much higher and more pregnant importance than those that have preceded them, that I hold myself completely justified in departing from what has hitherto been the rule of our house. What my fraternal heart feels in making this signal expression of the gratitude of your King and of your fatherland, no words of mine need tell.

“Your affectionate and grateful father, “WILLIAM.”

The modest dignity with which this extraordinary distinction was received by Frederick is exemplified in the reply made to a congratulatory letter from his old commander, Field-Marshal General Von Wrangel.

"The King," he said, "has informed me of my promotion in an autograph letter, as grateful as gracious, in which he specifies the reasons which have impelled him to depart from the usages of our house, a prince of which has never hitherto been made Field-Marshal. As my brave troops are also honored in my promotion, I accept the new dignity, rejoicing that the credit appertains to others besides myself.

"Great things have been accomplished by our arms, and now it is to be trusted that the work of bloodshed may be crowned by a peace that shall be a security for the well-being of our fellow-countrymen, and advance the internal aggrandizement of what we hope we may now designate our great and united Fatherland.

"I thank you for all your proofs of kindly sympathy, and especially for the message which I have just received from you, my old comrade and commander of 1864."

When, on the 18th of January, 1871, his father was proclaimed German Emperor within the "Hall of Mirrors," at the Palace of Versailles, he was present, and had assigned to him a prominent place in the ceremonial of the day. At the same time the Crown Prince, in virtue of his birth, became Prince Imperial and heir to the throne of Germany.

At the close of the war, but previous to the disbandment of the army, the Crown Prince was ordered home by his father to attend to the duties of State. Before leaving his brave troops with whom he had shared the

dangers and hardships of a sanguinary campaign, he issued the following farewell address :

“Soldiers of the Third Army ! When, last July, I undertook the command over you, I did not hesitate to express my trust that the bravery of the united German races would succeed in vanquishing the foe who had insolently challenged us to fight. That confidence you have admirably vindicated, for in this eventful campaign the Third Army has won as many victories as it has seen engagements.

“At the outset you broke through the enemy’s door at Weissenburg, thus opening the way for your career of victory, and within two days afterwards, the enemy, obstinate as he was, was routed in the engagement at Wörth ; in rapid march you hung upon his retreat, and took your glorious part in the decisive action of Sedan. With unabated ardor you pressed onwards to the heart of the hostile country, drove the fugitives back within the walls of their capital, and for well-nigh five months, with incredible endurance, bearing up against the severities and hardships of a trying winter, you kept them closely besieged.

Upon his return to Germany “Unser Fritz,” as he was now generally called, subsided into the old position he had occupied before, although naturally with an accession of dignity and reputation. He was, besides, a man of forty years of age, and, as was to be expected, had opinions of his own. It was about this time that it became generally understood, both, that he did not hold quite the same views of the European situation and of the attitude of Germany toward her neighbors, as Prince Bismarck, and that he was influenced in his views upon many

things by the Crown Princess—much better and more generally known, as the Princess Royal of Great Britain. As events turned out, this surmise proved correct, at least essentially. Not that the Crown Prince ever quarreled with the great Chancellor, to whose policy the completion of the task of the unification of Germany was due, as no one was readier to admit this than himself. But he had a more friendly, or perhaps it should be termed a more considerate feeling for France than his father's friend, and there is reason to believe that this feeling was shown to some purpose a few years after the war, when, as was proved afterward, a scare in Berlin very nearly led to an early renewal of the war. On that occasion the Crown Prince's weight in his father's council was thrown into the scale opposed to the Chancellor, and his opinion carried the day. Further, the Empress Victoria very naturally took over to Germany from her country a good number of the opinions she had inherited from her mother in regard to education, the value of art, etc., as a civilizing agent, and the position of women in society. She very naturally gave effect to these opinions as circumstances permitted, and to a certain extent she became unpopular with the more old-fashioned of the German aristocracy. Under her influence the Crown Prince developed an interest in art, technical education, and a number of those subjects to which the late Prince Albert was partial, and indeed it was very commonly said of her, by way of summing up the charges against her, that she sought to model her husband upon her father. The Crown Prince, however, sustained no evil effects from the influence. In England, "the White Prince," as he was commonly styled, from the uniform which he wore on great State occasions,

was quite as much a favorite as he was in his native Prussia, owing to his modesty of demeanor, his fondness for the pleasure of domesticity, and his liberal and unostentatious charity.

“And afterwards, whilst one detachment was employed in keeping back the forces, which overmatched you in numbers, from advancing to relieve the invested city, and was thus continually in the midst of bloodshed, the troops, who were intrusted with the seige, energetically repulsed every *sortie* till the enemy had no alternative but to lay down his arms and to open the proud gates, of which he had boasted, that they were impregnable.

“Such achievements belong to history, and you who have wrought them, the Fatherland accounts as worthy sons. But glorious as is the issue, it has not been attained without costly and painful sacrifice, and it is with the most sympathizing sorrow that we recall the memory of our fallen comrades, whose fame shall never die.

“An honorable peace being thus concluded, it is by the Emperor’s command that I return home. In leaving you I offer you my true and earnest thanks; I part from you, Prussians and Bavarians, troops of Würtemberg and of Baden, with the unshaken confidence that the bond of comradeship formed on the field of battle will never be torn asunder, but rather be strengthened by time, for the honor, renown and well-being of the common German Fatherland.

(Signed) “FREDERICK WILLIAM,  
“Crown Prince,

“Commander-in-chief of the Third Army.

“NANCY, March 14, 1871.”

As we have seen before, the Crown Prince was not in

full sympathy with Prince Bismarck's policy, and consequently improved every opportunity to conveniently absent himself from the sittings of the Council of State. He visited foreign lands, where, on great occasions, he represented his father. Thus, he was present at the opening of the Suez Canal, and upon this occasion extended his visit to the regions of the Upper Nile and to the Holy Land.

His diary, which he kept during the journey, is full of highly interesting passages, revealing the man of culture and sentiment. Writing of Egypt, he says: "A Nile journey is, perhaps, one of the most interesting a traveler can undertake. It requires, however, an enormous length of time, and, notwithstanding the satisfaction it gave me, I confess I have no desire to go a second time." His sincerity and unpretension in religious belief is expressed in the following passage, taken from his description of Palestine: "As long as I live I shall never forget this first evening in Jerusalem, as I watched the sun set in a stillness which is always solemn as it settles over nature. Drawn away from earth, the soul seemed able to linger undisturbed upon the thought which must thrill through every Christian as he surveys the scene on which the great work of salvation was consummated. To be in such a place, and there to read the familiar passages of the holy Gospels, is a religious service of itself."

Prince Frederick's letter accepting the invitation to be present at the unveiling of General Stein's statue, in 1872, showed his high appreciation of the services of this worthy patriot, rendered in Germany's "War for Independence," and is in marked contrast to the ingratitude shown by republics to the men who have sacrificed health,



homes and honorable civil careers for the success of a common cause. "My presence," said he, "at this festival, will not only show the deep and thankful reverence that I feel for this noblest among Germans, but will lay upon me the obligation of expressing my sympathy with his leading ideas as a statesman, to which Prussia, in the days of her misfortune, owed her regeneration and rescue from a foreign yoke. May the moral force of these ideas which, on one occasion already, have thus resolved themselves into deeds of deliverance, continue so thoroughly to pervade the body politic, that in them the Empire may find a pledge of a great and happy future."

To show that, notwithstanding the strong feeling of State independence existing still in Germany, the feeling, also, existed of great love and respect for the prospective head of the Russian Kingdom and the German Empire. The welcoming speech of the Burgomaster of Augsburg, at the inspection of the Bavarian troops, is here given: "I have the honor, most illustrious Prince," said he, "here, at the entrance of our ancient hall, to offer you our most joyful and respectful welcome. Our town, which long boasted of its rank as a free imperial city, in the lapse of time has become truly Bavarian, whilst it has ever remained as truly German. Hence it is that our rejoicing is great at the restoration of the Empire, which, whilst it secures us the right to manifest the German sentiments which we have always cherished, yet reserves us also the right of being true Bavarians still."

The Prince heartily endorsed these sentiments in his reply. "I can hardly express my views better than by repeating the language I used last year at Munich, to wit: that each component element of the German Empire

should retain its proper individuality, but each, paramountly revering the Fatherland, should contribute his best powers to continue that unity which has been so dearly purchased in field and State. That it has fallen to my lot to fight in comradeship with your brave countrymen I shall always remember as one of my highest privileges, and I shall not fail to treasure up the kindly sentiments of the Bavarian people to myself. My reception here binds me to you in still deeper gratitude, and I ask you to convey my thanks to the men of Augsburg. God grant that the noble aspirations you have breathed for the welfare of our Fatherland may be fulfilled and that our buds of hope may come in their richest bloom! Animated by this spirit, I can shout, 'Long live His Majesty, King Louis II. of Bavaria!'

Although the education of Frederick III. had been principally in the military line, his tastes were evidently in the direction of peace. In the progress of the arts and agricultural pursuits of the German people he was sincerely interested. He deemed agriculture and its branches as the chiefest source of his country's prosperity, and, from his writings and speeches, it must be assumed that, had his life been spared, his special work would have been directed towards the elevation, amelioration and instruction of the peasantry class of Germany. At a speech, made at the Agricultural Exhibition of Bremen, in 1874, he said: "In all the fields of industry, which give vital progress to the State, that of agriculture deserves the most consideration. Who will deny that the prosperity of agricultural interests concern all classes alike; not only in times of peace, but more especially in time of war, as well as holding out the fairest hope of a calm and contented future?"

Friedrich III., der verbliebene Kaiser von Deutschland und König von Preußen.  
FREDERICK III., LATE EMPEROR OF GERMANY AND KING OF PRUSSIA.



But of all the noble traits characterizing the late Emperor Frederick III. his love and constancy to his family life is the most conspicuous. It is declared of him that he was never more happy than in the circle of his wife and his numerous children. The old saying, "The life of a full nest is the best calculated to the development of nobleness of character," because attendant upon the friction of daily life—the spirit of forbearance, consideration and good-humor are nurtured, while a spirit of emulation, a desire for approbation, and generosity are equally fostered—was never better illustrated than in the household of the Emperor Frederick III.

The story of his private life is so opposed to the accepted idea of the homes of kings and princes, that it finds few parallels in history, if we except that of his grandfather, King Frederick William III. and his wife, Queen Louisa. Frederick's home was conducted after the simple fashion of private citizens. With all the fervency of his conscientious nature, his utmost care and fondest attention were directed toward the education and welfare of his children, in which task he was worthily assisted by a loving mother and devoted wife.

As an illustration of how Frederick III. lived at home, it is related, that one day a prominent staff-officer, appearing at the door of his private apartments, was agreeably surprised at the unusual scene there presented.

In the midst of his boisterous children the Crown Prince lay outstretched upon the floor, while his wife sat upon the sofa occupied with her needle. The Prince did not seem to be disturbed in the least by the entrance of the official, who had come on a charitable errand in aid of a distressed family. "You see," said the Prince jestingly,

upon learning the object of the visit, "my wife and children are all healthy, and have the best of appetites, leaving nothing for others." Notwithstanding this declaration, the venerable officer received a generous gift, after which the Prince returned to his "fun with the children."

Another characteristic anecdote is told of the manner in which he administered family discipline at Potsdam. One of the young princes was proverbially afraid of water. He was in the habit, therefore, of refusing to be washed. The Crown Prince, upon perceiving this, gave orders to the officers on guard at the palace not to give the customary salute to the young gentleman when he should pass the sentinel. The prince, having thus been ignored a few times, did not know what to make of it. At last he carried his grievance to his father, who curtly replied: "Prussian soldiers do not present arms to unwashed princes."

It is not generally known that Frederick III. was a Mason, and the fact that he was, and honored the organization, will be of interest to the "craft" in the United States. An interesting reminiscence of his connection with the ancient order is preserved in the address of his father, William I., who, at the close of the ceremony conferring the first degree upon his son, said: "To the man who has aimed and striven for the highest good, there is but one object in life. To a right understanding of this object, this social order will lead you. Only make it your constant endeavor to hearken to its pious teachings, and let it be your determination truly to stand to its rules, and you shall find it so. Amongst the uninitiated, no doubt, there is suspicion as to the principles of the Order, and clamorous voices are ready to traduce it; but, as I can yield to no

one who has never been admitted to the brotherhood the right to pass a judgment at all, so I can declare by my own knowledge that no heed should be given to the clamor. In the future that is before you, you will not fail, I trust, to give a proof of your clear and uncompromising defense of the Order to which you are admitted. The veil of secrecy with which it covers itself causes it to be attacked, and there are those who maintain that such secrecy cannot be indispensable. Thus there are some who would like to level everything just for the sake of having a plain and uniform surface; and many of those who traduce us look only superficially, and do not desire to be undeceived. Be it your part, however, to show yourself a firm protector of the Order, and so not only will you be providing for your own security in the future, but you will be sustaining yourself with the noble consciousness that you are striving to promote what is true and good."

Upon ascending the imperial throne of Germany, and the royal throne of Prussia Emperor Frederick III. issued the following significant message to the German Reichstag:

"We, Frederick, by the grace of God, Emperor of Germany, King of Prussia, &c., proclaim that, with the demise of our beloved father, under God's inscrutable will, the imperial dignity, with the Prussian crown, has devolved upon us, and we have taken upon ourselves the rights and duties bound up therewith. We are resolved to keep inviolable and firmly to uphold the imperial constitution, and by this policy conscientiously to respect and guard the constitutional rights of the individual federal States and the Reichstag. Fully conscious of our

exalted task, after the example of our ever remembered father, it will always be our endeavor, in conjunction with the princes and free towns of the Federation, and with the constitutional co-operation of the Reichstag, to shield justice, freedom and order throughout the Fatherland, safe guard the honor of the Empire, maintain peace at home and abroad, and foster the welfare of the people.

"By the unanimous readiness with which the Reichstag agreed to the proposals to strengthen the defensive power of the Fatherland in order to assure the security of the Empire, the late deeply lamented Emperor had the last days of his life rejoiced and strengthened. He was not, however, permitted to express his thanks to the Reichstag. All the more, therefore, do we feel the need of transmitting to the Reichstag this legacy of its imperial master, who is now resting with God. We express our thanks in recognition of the patriotism and devotion it has again shown. Trusting confidently to the devotion and tried love for the Fatherland of the whole people and the people's representatives, we place the Empire's future in God's hands.

"Given at Charlottenburg the 15th day of March, 1888.

[Signed]

"FREDERICK.

[Countersigned] "BISMARCK."

To the Prussian Landtag he also addressed the following message, as King of Prussia:

"We, Frederick, by the grace of God, King of Prussia, hereby proclaim and make known, that it having pleased God, after the demise of the Emperor and King William, our much beloved father, to call us to the throne





Die Kaiserin-Wittve Victoria.  
THE DOWAGER EMPRESS VICTORIA.



of our ancestors, we herewith send to the Landtag our greeting.

“The sentiments and purposes with which we enter upon our government, and the principles on which we shall exercise our royal office, have been proclaimed by us to our faithful people. Walking in the paths of our glorious father, we shall know no other aim to strive for than the happiness and welfare of the Fatherland.

“By conscientiously observing the constitution, fully safeguarding all prerogatives of the crown, and loyally co-operating with the national representation, the King hopes, with God’s help, to attain his object, which is the happiness and welfare of the country. The condition of his health prevents him from taking the oath personally. Desiring to declare, without delay, his position regarding the constitutional laws, although this could admit of no doubt, he now solemnly undertakes to adhere to the constitution firmly and inviolably, and to rule in conformity with the laws.”

In relation to the newly-annexed provinces of Alsace and Lorraine, the following proclamation was issued :

“Our beloved father, His Majesty, Emperor William, having departed this life, in accordance with God’s decree, the Imperial dignity, together with the laws of the Empire and the government of the Reichsland, has devolved on us. We have taken it over in the name of the Empire, and are determined to preserve the rights of the Empire over the German territories reunited to the Fatherland after a long interval. We are conscious of our duty to cultivate in the Reichsland German sentiments and German customs, to protect right and justice and to promote the welfare and prosperity of the inhabitants. In our endea-

vors to do justice to this task we count upon the confidence and devotion of the people and the faithful fulfillment of their duties by the authorities. We demand and expect a conscientious observance of the laws. At the same time we shall do our part to extend imperial protection to the rights of all by means of an impartial administration of justice and benevolent government, conducted circumspectly, but with a firm hand. The union of Alsace and Lorraine, which a lapse of years cannot impair, again becomes as intimate as it was in the time of our ancestors, before these German lands were severed from the ancient and glorious union of their kindred countrymen.

[Signed]

"FREDERICK.

[Countersigned] "HOHENLOHE.

"CHARLOTTENBURG, March 15."

But the most remarkable documents issued by the late Emperor Frederick III. are "The Address to His People" and the autographic letters to Prince Bismarck, in which his policy is outlined and his high aims and aspirations for the welfare of Germany clearly defined.

The proclamation to his people ran as follows:

*To My People:*

The Emperor has ended his glorious life. In the much-loved father whom I bewail, whom my royal house with me laments in deepest sorrow, the faithful Prussian people have lost their fame-crowned King, the German nation, the founder of its unity, and the newly-risen Empire the first German Emperor. His illustrious name will remain inseparably bound up with all the greatness of the German Fatherland, in whose new creation the strenuous labors of the Prussian people and princes has met with its most splendid reward. While King William

raised the Prussian army to the heights of its earnest vocation by never-tiring care, a nation's father, he laid a sure foundation for the victories which were afterward gained by German arms under his leadership, and out of which sprang national unity. He thereby secured to the Empire a position of power, such as up to that time every German heart had yearned for but scarcely dared to hope for. And that which he won for his people in honorable, death-bringing fight he was destined to strengthen and beneficially increase by the long and peaceful toil of his laborious years of government.

“Safely resting upon her own strength, Germany stands forth esteemed in the council of the nations, and desires only to enjoy in peaceful progress that which she has won. That this is so we have to thank Emperor William. In his never-wavering devotion to duty, and his indefatigable activity, consecrated to the welfare of the Fatherland, he was supported by his reliance upon the self-sacrificing devotion of which the Prussian people had given unvarying proofs, and in which all the German races shared.

“All the rights and duties which are connected with the Crown Prince and my house, and which, for the time that, according to God's will, may be allotted me to rule, I am resolved to faithfully preserve, have now passed to me. Imbued with the greatness of my mission, I shall make it my whole endeavor to continue the fabric in the spirit in which it was founded—to make Germany the center of peace and to foster her welfare.

“To my faithful people, who have stood by my house throughout the history of the whole century, in good as in evil days, I offer my unbounded confidence, for I am convinced that on the basis of the unbreakable bond between

the sovereign and the people, which independently of every change in the life of the State, forms the unalterable inheritance of the house of Hohenzollern, my crown rests henceforth as securely as it does upon the devotion of the country to the Government of which I am now called, and of which I solemnly promise to be a faithful King, both in happiness and in sorrow.

"May God grant me His blessing and strength to carry out this work to which my life shall henceforth be devoted.

"FREDERICK.

"Berlin, March 12th, 1888".

The autographic letter to Prince Bismarck contains probably more truly loyal and high minded sentiments, than were ever officially communicated by a powerful monarch, to his prime minister :

"MY DEAR PRINCE—At the commencement of my reign it is necessary for me to turn to you, for many years the trusted servant of my late father, who now rests in God. You are the true and courageous counsellor who gave to his policy its aim and form, and secured its complete fulfillment. You, I am in duty bound to warmly thank for the maintenance of my house. You have, therefore, the right, before all others, to know what are the stand-points which will be the guiding spirit for upholding my Government.

"The ordinances, the Constitution, and the right of the Empire and of Prussia must, before all, be consolidated in veneration and in the customs of the nation. The concussions, which frequent changes in State regulations and measures entail, should be avoided as much as possible. The advancement of the administration of the Imperial Government must be left undisturbed on the

firm foundation whereon the Prussian State has hitherto rested in security in the Empire.

“The constitutional rights of all the Federal Governments must as conscientiously be respected as those of the Reichstag, but from both a similar respect for the rights of the Emperor must be expected. At the same time we must keep before our eyes that these mutual rights must only serve for promoting the public welfare, which remains the supreme law of the land, and which must always be employed in fully satisfying any further and undoubted national requirements which may arise.

“As the necessary and surest guarantee of the unimpeded execution of these tasks, I see the unabated maintenance of the warlike power of the country, of my well-tried army, and of the navy now growing up, for which important duties have arisen in the acquirement of trans-oceanic possessions. Both must at all times be maintained by the full completion of their organization, which already forms the foundation for their fame, and which insures their further effective service.

*“I am resolved to conduct the Government, both in the Empire and in Prussia, with a conscientious observation of the provisions in the constitutions of each. These have been founded by my predecessor’s throne upon the wise recognition of the irrefutable necessities for the settlement of the difficult task arising in the social and official life of the country, and must be observed on all sides in order to insure their force and beneficent efficacy. I desire that the bases of religious toleration which for centuries past were held sacred by my house shall continue to be extended to all my subjects of whatever religious community or*

creed. Every one of them stands equally near my heart, for all have shown equally complete devotion in times of danger.

"In agreement with the views of my imperial father, I shall warmly support all efforts calculated to improve the economical prosperity of the different classes of society, to conciliate their opposing interests, and as far as it is in my power to alleviate unavoidable perplexity, *without, however, raising the expectations as though it were possible to end all ills of society by State intervention.*

"Closely bound up with the social question, I regard that of the education of youth. The efforts to this end must be on a higher scale and more widely accessible. We must avoid creating dangers by partial education and awakening demands which the economical powers of the nation cannot satisfy. We must also be careful that through one-sided efforts for increased knowledge the task of education shall not be neglected. Only a generation growing up upon a sound basis, in the fear of God and in simplicity of morals, can possess sufficient rising powers to overcome dangers which in times of rapid economical movement arise for the entire community through examples set by highly luxurious individuals.

"It is my will that no opportunity be lost in the public service to offer every opposition to temptation disproportionate to proper expenditures. My unbiased consideration is that every proposal of financial reform be assured in advance, unless the long-proved economy in Prussia will not permit the avoidance of the imposition of fresh burdens and effect an alleviation of the demands hitherto made upon the country.

"The self-government granted the greater and lesser



communities in the State I consider beneficial. On the other hand, I would suggest for examination of the question the right of levying taxes conferred upon these communities, which is exercised by them without sufficient regard for the burden simultaneously imposed by the Empire and the State, may not weigh unfairly upon individuals. In like manner it will have to be considered whether, in simplifying matters, a change in organizing the authorities, whereby a reduction in the number of officials would permit an increase of their emoluments, should we succeed in maintaining in their strength the bases of the State and social life. It will specially gratify me to bring to its full development the blossom which German art and science shows so rich a measure for realization.

"These are my intentions, and, counting upon your well-proved devotion, and on the support of your tried experience, may it be vouchsafed me thus, with the unanimous co-operation of the organs of the Empire, and the devoted activity of the representatives of the people, as well as all the officials, and the trustful collaboration of all classes of the population, to lead Germany and Prussia to new honors in the domain of pacific developments. *Careless of splendor and glorious achievements, I shall be content, if it can be hereafter said of my government that it has been beneficial to my people, useful to my country, and a blessing to the Empire.*

"Your affectionate

"FREDERICK."

Of the Emperor's reign of ninety-nine days, history records not one so melancholy; a monarch though he was, not a day of his reign could he call his own in the sense of absolute freedom from physical suffering; never

formally crowned, because unable to appear before the Reichstag to take part in the ceremonies necessary to the assumption of the imperial power of Germany and Prussia.

His tragic reign was not, however, without a certain compensation, if fame is the prize which men most aim for. The pains and sorrows of his last years brought to him the pity of all mankind, while the patient and cheerful stoicism with which he bore his affliction drew from the world eulogies of the loftiest character. He left behind him a singularly high reputation; and it is not too much to say that he was the most loved ruler that ever reached a European throne. It was matter of regret for some years among many of the Emperor William's subjects that he did not in his later reign and enfeebled state of health associate his honored and competent son more intimately in the management of German affairs, some going so far as to aver that both people and prince would have been well pleased had he gracefully placed the imperial mantle upon the shoulders of his son, ere disease had robbed him of all desire to rule and taken from him all enjoyment in life. Even before he ascended the throne, Frederick had demonstrated in a quiet and modest manner that, although his mind was of a different order from his father's, it was one that marked him out as well fitted for his high destiny. He came, indeed, into the world of politics with a solid reputation as a soldier. It did not fall to his lot to organize great wars like the veteran Moltke, but he bore the burden and heat of the day in two of the greatest campaigns of modern times, and divided the honors of both with Prince Frederick Charles. His soldiering was quite as notable for prudence as for brilliant qualities; it was conspicuous, also, and perhaps above all

Friedrich III. in seinem Arbeitszimmer  
FREDERICK III. IN HIS STUDY.

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things, for his power of making himself popular with the rank and file of his army. In politics he showed substantially the same qualities as distinguished him in warfare.

"Our Fritz" of the battle-field would have been "Our Fritz" of the Fatherland, if the chance had ever come to him of manifesting fully what he was made of. As it is, Europe has lost, by his death, one of the most open-minded and magnanimous of her leading public men. He was the hope of the liberal party of Germany.

As has been said before, the last few months of Frederick's reign was but a weary chronicle of suffering, borne with great fortitude and cheerfulness, and watched with alternate hope and fear by all Europe. The immense crowds of citizens of all classes waiting patiently day after day before the palace gates at Potsdam for the official bulletins, or for a sight of the Emperor at his window, was the most eloquent and touching tribute to his worth, and a striking testimonial of the appreciation in which he was held by the people.

The Emperor's ailment was a throat disease, but its malignant character had not been fully developed until 1887, when an operation of the larynx was determined upon. A year of calm, dignified and resigned suffering followed.

Day after day the public were informed of what appeared to be his gradual restoration to health, and what seemed like adequate proof of this was afforded by his frequent drives through the streets of Berlin. It did not seem to be credible to the Germans that the robust soldier, the handsome, stately figure which they had seen but a few years before at the head of the German armies,

throwing terror and dismay into the ranks of Germany's enemies, should actually have been smitten by a malady which might prove fatal. The mere rumor, much more the reality, called forth a prompt and sustained outburst of strong, sympathetic feeling. For, though he was modest and retiring, and had been only the dutiful first subject in a mighty empire, he had won the hearts of friends and foes, and men in all lands looked toward him as one who would be a great, just and kindly sovereign when he should be permitted to rule. That day came, but under what tragic conditions! The aged Emperor died afar from his "dear Fritz," whom he so longed to see again, and Fritz himself, bereft of the power of speech, was compelled to cross the Alps, ill as he was, in order to take his place at the head of an empire, and yet was not permitted to stand beside his father's bier! Few more touching journeys have been recorded than this of the stricken Prince from his sunny refuge on the Riviera to a city—a nation—in mourning, deep and sincere. A profoundly impressive accession; watched with eagerness and sympathy, not only in Germany, but beyond the Atlantic, on remote African plains, and on the shores and islands of the Farther East—wherever the English and the German tongues are spoken.

Thus vacillating between hope and fear, it became known to his admiring subjects that the Emperor had experienced a relapse; that his original malady was complicated with others of as serious a nature. The alarm which prevailed at San Remo before the operation of tracheotomy had been performed was revived, and with good reason. Again, however, so unwilling were the people to relinquish the long-deferred hope of seeing him upon the

throne of Germany, came the news that his disease had assumed more favorable conditions; that his improvement allowed him to attend the marriage of his second son, Prince Henry, and the idea finally found lodgment in the public mind that, after all, Frederick III. would regain sufficient health to reign for a few years, at least. It was not to be, however. For his disease there was alleviation, but no cure; and on June 12th the fatal relapse occurred. At midnight, June 14th, there seemed to be a slight improvement in his condition. He was preparing to sit up for a half hour in his arm-chair. He then returned to bed, and at midnight the Empress dismissed the Crown Prince and other members of the Imperial family to their apartments, and prepared herself to pass the night-watch in a room adjoining the sick chamber of the Emperor. Dr. Hovell shared in the vigil. At this time the Emperor was in the full possession of his faculties. Shortly after 1 o'clock he wrote on a slip of paper the following questions, which he handed to Dr. Hovell: "How is my pulse? Are you satisfied with it?" He then wrote something more, but retained the piece of paper in his hand after erasing the words. Between 2 and 3 o'clock his breathing became terribly labored, and some moments of struggle would occur, alternating with spasms and great distress as the hard fight with approaching death progressed. By this time the strength of the dying Emperor was seen to be waning. As soon as it became evident that the end was near, the Empress caused the royal family to be summoned. At 8 o'clock all gathered around the bedside. Dr. Kögel, Court Chaplain, who had been summoned by telegram from Ems, did not arrive in time to administer the last

sacrament. Dr. Persius, therefore, officiated in his stead. Pastor Rogge was also present in the death chamber. During the administration of the sacrament, and indeed even to within fifteen minutes before his death, the Emperor appeared to be quite conscious. He showed by the expression of his eyes and by the movements of his eyelids that he still recognized all who approached the bedside, relatives and others.

During the last hour the Empress held the Emperor's right hand, and the Crown Prince and Crown Princess stood on the left side of the death-bed.

A touching scene occurred at the bedside on the morning of June 15th, while the Emperor's life was passing away. Bismarck had called to bid his dying master a last farewell. The Emperor was thoroughly conscious, and, taking the hand of the aged Chancellor in his own feeble grasp, and motioning the Empress to draw nearer, he took her hand and joined it with that of Bismarck, thus giving a silent and pathetic token of his desire for a reconciliation of all differences between his wife and the Prime Minister.

His death gave to Germany her profoundest moment of grief. Every mark of esteem was shown at the farewell ceremonies attendant upon his burial. When the procession reached the church it was filled with more than a thousand wreaths of flowers that in no way suggested a funeral. The laurel wreath lying on the coffin was given to Frederick by his father after the battle of Wörth. The Dowager Empress Augusta, the Princess of Wales, and all the daughters of the late Emperor were waiting in the church when the procession arrived. Forty clergymen preceded the coffin up the aisle and formed a semi-



<sup>A</sup>  
**Wilhelm II., Kaiser von Deutschland und König von Preußen.**  
**WILLIAM II., EMPEROR OF GERMANY AND KING OF PRUSSIA.**



circle around it as it was placed on the altar. The Chief Court Marshal, Prince Radolinski, and four other Marshals, assisted by the Ministers of State, placed the crown and other insignia of royalty around the coffin. While the organ played softly, a hymn was sung, and then the Court Preacher Kögel read a chapter from the Bible. Then, as salutes were being fired from without, the young Emperor, William II., accompanied by the King of Saxony, went forward to take a last farewell of the dead. The choir chanted softly, and the royal and princely personages drew back. The King of Saxony bent forward and kissed the cloth that hung from the coffin. For a moment the young Emperor stood erect, and then, dropping suddenly on his knees, he seized the cloth with both hands and buried his face in it. What his thoughts were, who can tell? The older King knelt beside him. After a long time the young Emperor arose, and, with his head bent down, moved to the side of the altar. One after another the others went forward and kissed the robe, and the funeral of Germany's martyr Emperor was over.

## CHAPTER XVI.

### EMPEROR WILLIAM II.

**E**MPEROR FREDERICK III. had hardly breathed his last, when his son, Frederick William, born at Berlin, January 27, 1859, was raised to the throne of Prussia and imperial power of Germany, as William II. It would be both unprofitable to the reader and equally unjust to the young Emperor, to enter upon wild prognostications concerning his aims or probable policy. There is nothing in his antecedents, nor utterances since assuming his imperial title, to justify the assumptions of certain publicists that his reign will be of a despotic character, or that he would recklessly precipitate his country into a foreign war.

What we do know of him is, that like all of the Hohenzollerns, from the Great Elector, with one or two exceptions, he has a *penchant* for military life, and will always regard his army as the strongest safeguard to the maintenance of good order and the continued stability of Germany—a conviction which can not be said to be without justification, when it is remembered, on the one side, that under Austrian supremacy, in the Reichstag of 1849, attempts were made to liberalize Germany, and on the other side, the crude and visionary schemes of the socialists for fundamental changes in the form of the imperial government.

We also know of him that, aside from his military training, he has received a liberal education, first at the Gymnasium (high school) at Cassel, where it is said his

manner of training was thoroughly democratic, the prince being placed upon an exact equal footing with the humblest of his comrades. Here he remained several years, graduating among the first of his class. From Cassel he was sent to the University of Bonn, where it is well known, the slightest attempt on the part of the distinguished Hohenzollern to assume "princely airs," would have been met by the whole corps of students with sneers of derision. The fact that on his graduation from the University, at a collation given in his honor, he gave expression to sentiments which were in full accord with those of the most democratic and humblest of his fellow-students, is also to be placed upon his credit side. During his speech he said, after the health of his grandfather and his own had been drunk, "I thank you gentlemen, first of all, for the salamander you have so heartily drank to the health of my grandfather and then to me, and I cannot but express the deep pain I feel at the thought of leaving your joyful ranks so soon. I thank you for having received me as a corps student. I have learned to know the spirit animating the fighting clubs as well at their duel ground as in their social gatherings. It is a good and right honest German mood, and I will remain true to the spirit of this corps till the end of my life."

Upon his return from the University, he at once entered upon his military career. It was on this occasion that Emperor William gave him the following fatherly talk: "You have learned from a study of history that all the kings of Prussia have, together with their duties as regents, always paid chief attention to the army. The great Elector gave a mighty example to his hosts by his own personal courage. Frederick knew very

well when he placed the crown upon his head that he would be compelled to defend his steps. He knew well, however, that his troops, tried in battle, would enable him to do so. Frederick William I., in the garrison which you now enter, and which has been well called the cradle of the Prussian army, laid the firm foundation to its organization by the strict discipline which he introduced, without which no army can exist, and this spirit still lives. Frederick the Great, possessed of natural talent as a commander, took this firmly built organization as the basis of the army with which he made war and fought battles that made him immortal. In the last year it was the Prussian army, with its invincible courage, its steadfast endurance, that enabled Prussia to attain the great position she now occupies. Your youth fell in these days.

“You have in your father a noble example in the guidance of wars and of battles. In the service which you are about to enter, however, you will come across matters that may seem insignificant to you; but you will learn that in the service nothing is small, and that every stone belonging to the structure of an army must be properly formed if the completed edifice is to be firm and lasting; therefore, I bid you go and do your duty.”

On the 27th of February, 1881, Prince William was married to Princess Augusta Victoria, daughter of the late Grand Duke of Schleswig-Holstein. Four sons have been born to them, the eldest of whom is now the Crown-prince, Frederick William, and is six years old.

A slight incident transpired in 1885, which, although insignificant in itself, proves the young Emperor to be a man above the punctilious observances of the old regimes, and also furnishes a glimpse of his personal character.

At a fine-art exhibition in Berlin, at which it was known the Prince would be present, Mr. Adolph Loeb, of Chicago, was invited. Knowing the old severity of court etiquette, Mr. Loeb, when asked to attend, said "he would not be able to appear in a swallowtail, as he was only traveling in Europe on business." Being assured that the absence of this garment would not be noticed by His Royal Highness, Mr. Loeb consented, and in passing before the picture on exhibition, unexpectedly met and was introduced to the Prince. After saluting him, Mr. Loeb, doubtless deeming the Prince the man he is, replaced his hat, as he would have done in a public place after saluting the President of the United States. Naturally, the courtiers surrounding the Prince were dumbfounded, but the Prince seemed not to notice this departure from the usual formalities, and appeared to enjoy meeting a man who had either forgotten or never learned the art of "foot-scraping" before royalty. During the remainder of the exhibition, the Prince repeatedly returned to Mr. Loeb to talk of Chicago, to which city he had made a flying visit some years before, and upon parting, cordially shook hands with him, and wished Mr. Loeb to take his greetings to his fellow Germans in Chicago.

The admiration of William II. for Chancellor Bismarck is well known, and it is the knowledge of this fact which fills the minds of the socialistic agitators with apprehension, as well as the sober-minded conservatives with feelings of satisfaction and security.

No true friend of Germany's well-being will indulge in gratuitous forebodings concerning the probable course of her youthful ruler. There is an impression abroad, that a well-defined streak of practical common sense has

governed the rule of action of the Hohenzollern family from its earliest period, and it will require more than the simple assertion of speculating pessimists to eradicate this soothing impression. It may be well here to remember, that those in the old Fatherland, who, before the difficulties with Austria and France, were bitterly opposed to King (Emperor) William's urgent demand for ample army appropriations, have long since acknowledged, they were wrong and he was right.

The American, who is only a distant and disinterested observer, when confronted with lugubrious prognostications about the willful and autocratic disposition of Emperor William II., will wisely interpose his standing admonition of fair play, to wit: "Give the man a chance."

MAY 5 - 1915



